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ABSTRACT

This book provides the basic structure for the teaching of reading in California and is designed for use by teachers of reading or by teachers in areas in which reading is important to the student's educational growth. Following an introduction to the reading framework, contents include "Philosophy, Goals, and Objectives of the Reading Program"; "The Student and the Reading Process," which discusses the acquisition and use of language skills by preschool children, elementary school children, and adolescents; "Program Planning and Development," which examines approaches to reading instruction and analyzes reading in the content areas, including techniques for evaluating the reading program; and "The Development of Staff," which explores the roles of the classroom teacher, the reading specialist, the paraprofessional, the school librarian, the school administrator, the reading consultant, and parents in developing a solid reading program. (RB)

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Framework in Reading

for the Elementary and Secondary Schools of California

Adopted by the
California State Board of Education
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Foreword

The tragedy and the beauty of all of life is bound in the printed word. The person capable of giving meaning to those words has learned, as S. I. Hayakawa says, "to profit by and take part in the greatest of human achievement."

I hope for children, as early as possible, the exhilaration that comes from turning the pages of "their" books and of knowing the words as their own. I hope for every child the grand experience that comes from sharing a book with someone he loves and of hearing the words lifted off pages of print and made meaningful by a kind and careful voice.

If the child has been blessed with someone who has opened books for him, our job in education will have been made much easier. If, however, this has not happened, the teacher's first task will be to make reading a pleasant, rewarding experience for that disadvantaged child. Unless we develop in children a desire to read for themselves, all of our other efforts in the teaching of skills will never be much more than mechanical exercises.

The purpose of our instruction must be, as the authors of this reading framework say, "to release the power of literature to change the life of the reader through involvement." We must show the child that reading provides a bridge between him and the world of ideas. Most of all we must believe in the power of words, we must have traveled that bridge, we must exhibit an attitude toward reading that emits positive responses from the children we teach. We must read to them from good books that overflow in our classrooms.

The *Framework in Reading for California Public Schools* provides the basic structure for the teaching of reading in California. It has been designed to be used by all the teachers in the state who have responsibility for reading instruction, and it should serve as an extension of frameworks in each of the subject areas in which reading is important to a child's educational growth. Because reading cannot be isolated from the other language arts essential to the total communicaton process, this framework has a special relationship to the *English Language Framework for California Public Schools,* which the Department of Education published in 1968. Teachers of reading will find the two documents very helpful as bases for their instructional planning.

Gordon Manzie

When spoken well, the written word can have awesome power.

The authors of this framework in reading, the first of its kind in California, say that the power of literature comes from its ability "to hold life in suspension, permitting readers to get a clearer, deeper insight into the human condition, to understand themselves better, and to develop a more creative response to life by becoming aware of the range of options from which they may choose each time they make a decision in life." If our teachers can let children know the power which has been bound together by the great minds of this world, they will have put the cumulative experience of mankind within the grasp of each child. We cannot hope for any greater goal; we should not settle for any less.

Wilson Riles

Superintendent of Public Instruction

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Los Angeles Unified School District

The reading program must provide for differences in language and background.

Introduction to the Reading Framework

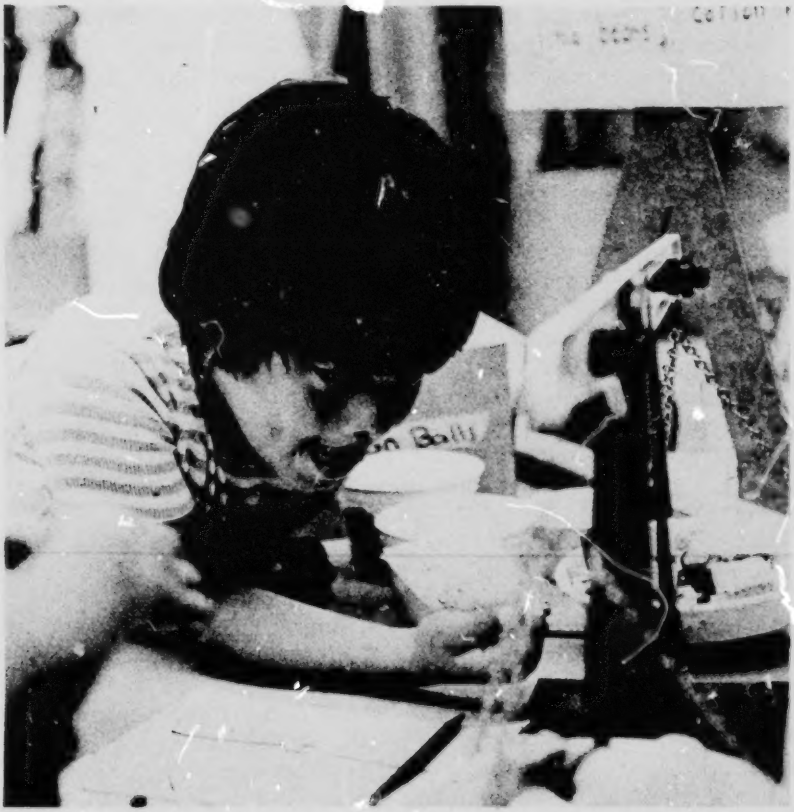
The act of reading is the process of discovering meaning in written language. Meaning comes from an interaction of the reader's experiential background and language competencies with the written message of an author. Reading is a complex process that begins with the decoding of written language; it is influenced by the reader's language and experience, attitude and motivation, sensory perception, and comprehension abilities.

The reader's language competencies and experiential background are important dimensions of the reading act. If equal educational opportunity is to be a reality for California students, the reading program must provide for differences in language and background between the reader and the writer. When these differences are significant, they may be reduced through an oral language development program and through the provision of concrete experiences related to what is to be read. These differences may also be dealt with by a change in the type of reading material used. Thus language to be read may be selected to represent more closely the reader's language, and the material to be read may be selected to represent more closely the reader's experience. In the case of students whose native language is not English, a bilingual-bicultural-biliterate program offers a viable alternative to a program in which English alone is used. The relationship between the language and the experience the reader brings to the reading act and the nature of the material to be read help to determine success or failure in reading.

The reader's positive attitude toward reading is another important dimension in determining success, and success in reading in turn develops a positive attitude. If reading becomes a rewarding experience, students will not only learn how to read but will become avid readers. They will discover in reading a way of gaining information and generating new ideas, of understanding themselves and others better, and of reducing fear and uncertainty. This positive attitude will also assist readers in applying reading to their lives. They

will use reading to gain understanding of new experiences, to adapt or change their behavior appropriately in new situations, and to establish new and rewarding relationships. Zest for reading can increase one's zest for living.

The reader's ability to perceive written symbols and to distinguish between different symbols is also essential to the reading process. The ease with which the reader associates these symbols with sounds in oral language depends on an ability to hear differences in intonation and pronunciation. Although factors like continual lack of nourishment or rest as well as emotional and physical problems can significantly reduce the reader's performance, capacities such as the relative strength of auditory and visual memory and kinesthetic sense influence the way the student will learn to read most efficiently.



Gordon Menzie

The reader's ability to distinguish between different symbols is essential to good reading.

Another dimension of the reading act concerns the process through which the reader arrives at meaning. As readers identify the relationship between symbols and the sounds represented, they must focus on comprehension. Their purpose is to establish relationships of meaning between the internal language and the language to be read. If the reader's language is limited because of lack of vocabulary, for example, the reading act may be incomplete. The raising of questions, the examination of clues, the search for emphasis, the maintenance of an attitude of expectation, and, as the unexpected occurs, the modification of previous interpretations and expectations are all part of the reading process.

The importance of oral language has never been in doubt. The role of reading, however, changes with the development of civilization. Before the invention of movable type, reading was important only to a few. With the explosion of knowledge and the popularization of printed literature, however, the ability to read became more and more important to the livelihood and happiness of all. Today, electronic media such as television, motion pictures, radio, and recordings assume more and more responsibilities for communication. Experiences with other media enhance the background the individual brings to the reading act. In this sense the other media do not compete with reading; instead, they enrich the experience of reading. The arts of viewing, listening, and reading are all required in a contemporary view of literacy. Although many kinds of information and varied literacy experiences are available through unwritten media, the person who reads has much richer and more convenient opportunities for learning than one who does not. Reading continues to be an important means of receiving the ideas of others and of stimulating imaginative new ideas.

As the role of reading changes, however, the person who can read may at times not fully realize its importance. Reading provides a bridge between the individual and the world of ideas. Information signs along the highway, directions on labels, advertisements, directions at work, mail, and materials distributed at community meetings are only a few of the common items that make the person unable to read them feel isolated and alienated. The failure of individuals to maintain economic self-sufficiency because of an inability to read also places a burden on society. Our democratic government is based on the need for an informed electorate and a high degree of literacy among its citizens. Reading is thus a requirement for success in education and in work and for personal satisfaction in life. It is vital to the health of our society and our republic.

Philosophy, Goals, and Objectives of the Reading Program

Each school district has the responsibility of preparing a statement of the philosophy, goals, and objectives of its reading program. The statement for the reading program included in this framework is designed for all students in California public schools. Although the statement is, therefore, broad in its direction, it serves as a guide for school districts in preparing statements for the students under their direction.

A statement of philosophy is based on beliefs about the educational purpose of the reading program. A statement of goals relates this philosophy to student achievement. Goals are general in nature and are more concerned with program outcomes than with the steps required for their fulfillment. Objectives, on the other hand, indicate advancement toward the achievement of program goals.

Program objectives relate student performance to the curriculum without specifying the criterion level or time period for attainment. They are appropriate for use at the state, district, or school levels. More specific objectives, based directly on program objectives, can be prepared only by a teacher if they are to be appropriate for the students in each classroom. The performance objectives, for example, include the level of acceptable student performance as well as the time frame in which the objectives are to be achieved. Another example of a more specific objective is the intentional objective, which refers to what the teacher intends to do a time frame may be included.

Each student masters the objectives of the reading program in a particular sequence. Because of individual uniqueness, no hierarchical order of objectives exists for all students. The sequence is determined by the interaction of the individual student's experiential background, language competencies, motivation, and interest with the priorities of the reading instruction program. Program objectives are met by degrees. Each new instructional experience at each succeed-

ing grade level should enable students to attain a higher criterion level of performance. Thus, the objectives stated in this framework may be an appropriate base for more specific classroom objectives at any grade level.

The statement of philosophy, goals, and objectives that follows may not include all the dimensions of the reading program important to a particular school district. It is designed to suggest direction and to stimulate discussion among teachers, administrators, parents, and board members in each school district in the state.

Philosophy of the Reading Program

All students in California public schools have the right to reading instruction that provides the following:

- Experiences that will enable individuals to learn to read at the highest level possible for them
- Experiences that will develop a lifelong appreciation for and interest in reading
- Friendly, understanding, competent teachers
- Experiences built on individual learning strengths regardless of grade placement age, achievement level, intellectual potential, interests and aptitudes, sex, social maturity, or ethnic, cultural, or racial backgrounds
- A variety of learning resources to meet different needs

Goals of the Reading Program

Through their experiences in the reading program in California public schools students should develop the following:

- Ability to decode and comprehend written material at a level that will enable them to function as productive members of society
- Reading abilities, tastes, and interests that will enable them to discover personal satisfaction in reading and to gain a better understanding of themselves and others
- An imagination that through literature is broadened beyond the confines of the students' world
- Ability to question, to reason, and then to act creatively as individuals and as members of groups
- An understanding of how to use reading as a means of learning in a variety of human endeavors and how to integrate reading with other means of learning
- A positive attitude and commitment to lifelong learning

Objectives of the Reading Program

Through their experiences in the reading program in California public schools, students can be expected to do the following:

- Gain personal satisfaction and rewards from reading.
- Search for knowledge through reading, voluntarily seeking a variety of reading experiences that most effectively match their maturity and interests and foster progress in the educational program.
- Select relevant ideas from material read, modify those ideas as a result of other reading and of personal experiences, and organize the resulting new ideas for effective use in critical and creative thinking and communicating.
- Discuss material read, stating their own interpretations as well as the varying interpretations of others and modifying original interpretations when appropriate.
- Identify letters, numerals, and common symbols and words.
- Decode words by applying the skills of phonetic and structural analyses as well as context clues.
- Relate vocabulary from materials read to concepts gained from reading, listening, viewing, and other sensory experiences.
- Relate words in print to oral language and explain their meaning in a particular context by using such aids as accent and diacritical marks, morphemic units, and definitions in a dictionary suitable to the age level of the students.
- Apply an understanding of language syntax necessary to the reading process by arriving at the meaning of material read.
- Read orally in their own dialect, using grammatical and typographical signals as an aid to the discovery of meaning.
- Explain the main idea of material read, differentiating it from the supporting ideas.
- Follow a set of directions in material written at the level of the reading instructional program.
- Identify the sequential order of events as they occurred and were reported in the material read and explain any change of meaning or effect that results from the difference.
- Arrive at a general principle, hypothesis, or generalization after reading a series of details.
- Infer ideas not explicitly stated in the material read.
- Anticipate ideas while reading.
- Distinguish between statements of fact and opinion in the material read.
- Evaluate the author's bias or fairness in treating a particular subject.

- Perceive the organizational structure of what is read by understanding its overall design, identifying its major divisions, and recognizing the transitions from one part to another provided for the reader.
- Recognize the meaning and effect of the material read through the author's use of such devices as figurative language, imagery, symbols, concrete language, abstractions, connotative associations, sound patterns, and rhythm.
- Locate specific information on a given subject by using such references as an index, table of contents, atlas, encyclopedia, and dictionary suitable to the age level of the students.
- Grow in ability to apply reading to the tasks of each of the subject areas of the curriculum.
- Pursue the same idea through more than one medium.
- Read general material at a rate sufficient to complete reading tasks within a reasonable time and to achieve adequate comprehension for the specific task; skim material rapidly to gain a general overview; scan material quickly to locate specific information; and adjust the rate of reading to the purpose for reading and to the type and difficulty of material.

Each student is expected to identify letters, numerals, and common symbols and words.

San Juan Unified School District

The Student and the Reading Process

Each individual is unique; yet, everyone has certain basic needs that include the need to love and to be loved; to satisfy curiosity; and to be respected for personal characteristics associated with language, culture, sex, race, and national origin. These needs are all involved in the individual's learning process whether the person is six, sixteen, or sixty years old. The fulfillment of these needs affects success in learning to read. So that success in reading can be achieved, the rights as well as the needs and corresponding responsibilities of every student deserve serious consideration:

1. *The student has the right to be respected and understood.* Differences in language, culture, and values are part of the uniqueness of every individual. Students should have the opportunity to communicate by means of the language they know best; that is, the language they bring to school from their home and community. By listening and responding with interest to what students say, the teacher can help to create an atmosphere of understanding and respect. The students will thereby be more able to learn in school and will be more willing to return the respect and understanding offered to them.
2. *The student has the right to develop the ability to read at a pace and in a manner consistent with his abilities, strengths, and differences.* Learning is an individual process. Each person differs in learning capacity, in readiness for particular areas of learning, and in learning styles. Reading, an aspect of language learning, is intimately related to all aspects of a student's growth. Undue pressure can retard rather than advance learning. Achievement in reading, as in other areas of learning, is dependent on the interrelated aspects of total growth—physical, intellectual, social, and emotional. The student's strengths and weaknesses in all these areas must be considered in developing personal reading experiences.

Some students have problems that can make learning to read a very difficult task. The student has the right to expect a thorough analysis of these problems and help in overcoming them so that they do not interfere with learning to read. Vision, hearing, and perception tests as well as a medical examination may be required for identifying physical problems. Other kinds of problems may require equally expert help.

Other students may understand and speak a language that differs decidedly from the language used in classroom reading instruction. For learning to be facilitated, children need to understand the language that they are asked to read. Therefore, language experiences and reading materials should be provided to help students continue to develop productive skills in their own language. Students can then also be helped to acquire the receptive and productive skills in the language used in the classroom.

3. *The student has the right to enjoy learning and to discover that learning is useful.* Students enjoy learning about aspects of life in which they are interested, and they will use reading as one of the means of gaining information and insight in their search for greater understanding. Teachers should build on the concepts that come from the experiences that students bring to school. Students will profit from reading activities that provide personal success and satisfaction, such as reading prose or poetry or lyrics, reading about a child born in Japan who comes to the United States, or reading directions on how to fix a bicycle. When the interests and concerns of students are considered in the development of the reading program, the students' enjoyment of learning will be heightened.

   By becoming involved in the planning aspects of their own instructional program, students have opportunities to develop independence in learning and to build self-confidence. When students learn where to go for help—from a teacher, a grandfather, a library, a novel, a textbook, or a dictionary—they are on the threshold of broadening their spheres of interest and are on their way to the pursuit of lifelong education.

4. *The student has the right to an instructional program in reading that will expand and extend his personal learning capabilities.* Teachers who listen to students and communicate with them are able to build reading programs of interest to the student. The inclusion of the familiar, however, is only a beginning step. An individual is often fascinated by one thing now and by something else tomorrow. The teacher's task is to capture these

moments of interest, extend and intensify them, and assist the student in developing many long-term interest areas in which to pursue learning. The teacher must continually provide a new fund of experiences that will expand the horizons of students and enable them to make significant gains in intellectual and academic achievements.

The reading program should provide frequent opportunities for students to test ideas and exchange value judgments as they formulate opinions and attitudes. Many students will move from high school directly into the world of work. The ability to use language and to interpret language in both oral and written forms is vital to the students' progress.

The diversity and mobility of the California school population contributes to the complexity of the teaching of reading in the schools, thus compounding the problem of meeting individual differences. Therefore, no single set of materials can help every individual expand his own reading capabilities. If, in fact, the student is to realize full fruition of self, both intellectual and emotional, continual reevaluation and revision of curriculum content, organization, resources, learning environment, and approaches to instruction are required.

San Juan Unified School District

Students should have opportunities to develop independence in learning.

Gordon Menzie

Teachers and students speak, listen, write, and read continually during the day.

In view of these rights and responsibilities, students as well as teachers should actively and cooperatively be involved in developing their ability to assume responsibility for the following:

- Respecting differences in language and life-style among teachers and peers
- Learning to accept peer pressures while maintaining personal integrity
- Seeking and accepting opportunities to increase communication
- Reading different kinds of materials on a wide range of subjects
- Assessing individual progress in reading

The Student and Language

Reading is a process of language. The purpose of reading is to receive and understand a message. All aspects of language involve communication, which consists of the production and reception of messages for the purpose of gaining understanding. Most of the activities in our schools in some way involve communication through language. Teachers and students speak, listen, write, and read continually during the school day.

Children are users of language before they enter school. They can speak the language they learned at their mother's knee. They can express their needs, gain responses, and interact with relatives and

friends. All children have language, and all children use their language in a rule-governed, organized way by the time they come to school. If we can understand how children learn to speak and think about their personal world before they come to school, it may help us to build on these strengths when they do enter school and begin to work in more formal learning situations.

When linguists—scientists who study language—talk about language, they use a common set of terms to describe what they are examining. One set of terms is related to how language works in communication. Linguistic communication involves speaking, reading, listening, and writing. The interrelationship of these four systems is the key to the understanding of communication. Listening and reading are both systems of language through which messages are received; they are *receptive* aspects of language. Speaking and writing are both systems of language that people produce to send messages to others; they are *productive* aspects of language. The receptive and productive aspects of language are not equally developed at the same time, for people have a greater capacity to receive ideas and meanings than they do to produce them.

The system of sounds of a language is called a *phonological* system. Linguists describe the ways in which people produce sounds and the ways in which sounds are similar or different. The sound or phonological system consists of the vocal noises speakers make that are understandable as language. All aspects of language have order and rules. The order and rules of the system of interrelationships of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences that linguists study are called the *syntactic* or grammatical system of language. Linguists describe the grammatical system that speakers use and the ways in which the rules of syntax differ from one group of speakers to another. The relationship that the words, clauses, and sentences have to abstract ideas and real things is the meaning or *semantic* system of language. Linguists study how meanings change from one group of people to another and what ideas are represented in certain languages and not even discussed in others. For several thousands of years, human beings have represented language in visual forms. Linguists call the visual representation of language the *graphic* system. The English graphic system is alphabetic, one in which letters are used to represent oral language.

As linguists study or describe language, they can examine the phonological, syntactic, or semantic systems. They can discuss how productive and receptive systems of language operate. They can study these separately or see how they operate in relationship to each other. When people use language for purposes of communica-

tion in a literate society, all language systems must be operating together.

Another aspect of language that must be clearly understood among people involved in reading is *dialect*. Everyone speaks a dialect of a language. Each dialect has a phonological (sound) system that can be described; a syntactic (grammatical) system with rules that govern the production of utterances and the interrelationship of words; phrases and clauses used in the dialect; and a semantic (meaning) system that can be understood by others who speak the same dialect. Some dialects have greater prestige than others and are referred to as *standard* dialects. Dialects not considered prestige dialects are sometimes called *nonstandard* dialects. The criteria used to determine which dialects are standard are socioeconomic.

Language and the Preschool Child

From birth each human being continually seeks to communicate with other human beings. Indeed, so critical to their well-being is this search that children who are shut off or who shut themselves off from communication for very long become noticeably alienated in their behavior. Fortunately, most children find access to the sustaining network of human communication. For children the access is at first not primarily through language. True, babies hear speech noises, but the physical accompaniments to language are probably more critical in the beginning. A warm embrace, a reassuring pat, and a tender touch give an immediate sense of primary human relationships. Soon, however, it is language, the uniquely human instrument for communication, that opens wider channels of fellowship. As children listen to language, they begin to sense how speech joins people. And they start to learn how to get food and attention. Next, they make their own language sounds; they learn to speak. They learn how language enables people to share ideas and experiences.

In early infancy babies utter a wide range of sounds, many of which do not appear in the mother tongue. Some of these sounds belong to other languages. But when children start to speak, an adult soon recognizes them as speakers of the language because the sounds they make are found in the language spoken around them. They have distinguished from all they hear those sounds that belong to their own language. The language that children learn to speak is the language spoken by the adults around them. More specifically, the children speak the dialect of their family and their community.

Imitation of speech is not, however, the most important aspect of language acquisition. At each stage of language development,

children internalize a set of rules that governs their use of language. By the time they are uttering three or four words together, children are producing sentences that they never heard before. An important motivating device for children is their need to communicate and interact with adults and other children. As they develop, children constantly extend their use of language so that when they come to school they are speaking within the rules that are a part of their dialect.

All children come to school with an ability to use language and with a variety of experiences using language. Most have had a common experience of watching and listening to television programs. Some experiences, however, are unique to the family or cultural community. These are legitimate human experiences that have helped children learn to communicate and to deal with their environment.

The preschool years are critical to language development. As children listen and speak, they can be helped to broaden and deepen their human relationships and their feelings of being at home in the universe. They need expanded and varied opportunities to talk with, listen to, play among, and work alongside other children. They can check their impressions, reactions, and feelings with parents and other adults. They can learn to know animals, trees, streams, sun, sky, clouds, and rain. They can observe, manipulate, and experiment with the sights, sounds, tastes, smells, and textures all around them. The more extensive their life with people, animals, places, and things, the more their oral language will be suffused with the thoughts and ideas that are the basis for the full development of language and being.

Language and the Elementary School Child

The basic grammatical structure of most of the sentences used by children when they first attend school appears to be similar to the structure used by adults. During the elementary school years, children develop an ability to use more complex English grammar. This development seems to take place regardless of direct instruction. Throughout elementary school, children continue to understand much more of what they hear than is reflected in the language they produce.

Probably more significant than development in the use of grammar is the development of understanding in the child. Much more is involved here than vocabulary growth. More important than development of vocabulary is the development of an understanding of the relationships among words and the manner in which these relationships of meaning refer to greater contexts of meaning like the sen-

tence, the paragraph, or a total experience. During the elementary school years, the child continues to develop more differentiated categories and to handle more abstract ideas and concepts. The greatest aid to the child during this time is a wide range of experiences that will in turn extend his language competence.

Language and the Adolescent

The most visible aspect of the relationship between experience and cultural change in language is seen in the language used by adolescents. Adolescents are very much involved in cultural change, which is reflected in the dynamic quality of their language. The dialects of the surfer, the motorcycle buff, and the pop music enthusiast are examples of this dynamic quality. The movement of this language through the adolescent segment of society is facilitated by the mass media.

Most adolescents can, when they choose, use the dynamic language of their peer group but switch easily to that of the classroom and adult culture when appropriate. This flexibility will be facilitated especially for adolescents who have not been forced to reject the language of the teacher or the dominant society because they have been alientated from adults. Teachers genuinely concerned about understanding and communicating with adolescents will need to show as much respect for and give as much attention to the youth culture as they do to the various ethnic cultures represented in their classrooms.

Language and Reading Instruction

Reading is a language activity. Of equal importance in this act are the language of the reader and the language of the writer. Comprehension occurs only when the two are joined.

Students and Their Language Communities

Students share many qualities that make them alike. At the same time some students who speak a variant language or dialect bring to school qualities that relate to their own language background. Effective instruction in reading must be based, in part, on the composition of the language community to which each student belongs. The influence of four different types of language communities on reading instruction is described as follows:

1. *Students who speak a language other than English but live in a predominantly English-speaking community.* Students in this category do not understand the language of those around them, nor are they understood by most of the other students in the classroom or by the teacher. The most important prerequisite of

learning to read for students with this type of language background is to acquire facility in oral English. If they are in elementary school and a majority of the children in the class speak English, they will learn the language of the dominant culture quickly and easily within a year's time. More time may be required for older students.

Every speaker of a new language faces the same types of problems. Sounds, grammatical patterns, and meanings exist that are significant in the language to be learned but not in the native tongue. These differences will normally take the longest time to learn. Teachers must be very patient in handling these problems. Reading does not have to be postponed, however, until all these problems have been resolved. The student probably understands or has receptive control over the significant differences before being able to produce the desired utterances. Reading is one of the receptive processes. Reading a second language should be started when a student is beginning to show ability to communicate with his teacher and his peers regardless of how the oral language sounds. A great deal of oral language interaction and oral language experience will help the student become receptive to language differences and eventually to be able to produce the different sounds. Attempts to correct pronunciation constantly at the time of reading only confuse the reader and make learning to read more complicated. Reading is a process of gaining meaning, and the teacher should help the student focus on gaining meaning.

2. *Students who speak a language other than English and live in a community where most of the members speak this same language.* The community in which the students in this category live is bilingual, and the students are often referred to as bilingual students. In California this category may include children whose parents speak one of the American Indian languages, Spanish, Portuguese, Chinese, Japanese, and a number of other languages. Such a bicultural-bilingual community may have been well established for many years. The language background of the people who live in this community is as complex and varied as are their socioeconomic backgrounds and aspirations and expectations for school success and future employment. Some members of the community are closer to the cultural traditions of the native home; others are rapidly assimilated into the culture of the United States. Still others reject aspects of both cultures, causing new values and new attitudes to emerge.

Some persons in the community may be new arrivals who want to retain the language of the native country and insist that only the native tongue be spoken in the home. Others may have lived in the community for more than three or four generations and speak only English in the home. The dialect of American English spoken will, however, probably be influenced by the native tongue. Usually, contacts are maintained with members of the family who speak the native tongue; therefore, most of the persons in the family have some receptive control over the native language. They understand a good deal of the language and are steeped in the cultural values of the bilingual community. A teacher needs to know as many of these varied aspects of a student's background as possible in order to plan appropriate language experiences.

The teacher needs to discover whether students understand what they are reading and should not place undue emphasis on pronunciation or grammar. In most cases students have receptive control over these elements and show evidence of their understanding, which must always be emphasized. Productive control is achieved through continual exposure to a wide variety of American English dialects and through the patience and support of the teacher. Students must be made to feel confident about their growth in language and must focus on meaning as they read.

3. *Students who speak a dialect of American English different from the language of the school.* In California the largest groups using nonstandard American English dialects are those who speak the black English vernacular and those who speak the dialects common to economically poor white families from the South, the Ozarks, and Appalachia. Speakers of these dialects are often aware before they come to school that their language is not acceptable to teachers and those who control most employment possibilities within society. To help these children learn how to read, the teacher must above all learn to accept them as they are.

These students usually have receptive control of the dialects of others. They often live in a community where there is a variety of dialects, and they have learned how to listen to these dialects and to understand them. They probably also have receptive control of some of the dialects they have heard on television. The teacher needs to give the student additional opportunities to get used to the language of the school through sharing experiences and talking about them. At the same time

the teacher will have an opportunity to become familiar with the student's dialect and to distinguish it from the dialects used by others in the classroom. These experiences will become the things to talk about, write about, and read. Language developed through common experiences is the language often understood best.

If the teacher insists that students read things the way they pronounce them, the students may become much more concerned with carefully sounding out what is printed than with learning what the written message means. Most of the reading a person does is not oral, and the reading program is not the place in the curriculum to make an effort to change dialects. In fact, when that attempt is made, the student places the emphasis on oral language production rather than on receiving and understanding the message of the author.

4. *Students who speak a dialect of American English very similar to that of the teacher.* All students need experiences that stimulate the use of language and thought. Even though a child comes to school speaking standard English with great facility, his language is not exactly like that of the adult community. Through increased significant language experiences, a child continues to develop facility in the use of language. Providing experiences that stimulate a student's curiosity and develop in him a desire to learn how to read is the responsibility of all teachers and the right of all learners. The language used in reading material may differ from the spoken language of the child. Regardless of the dialect they speak, children come to school with concepts limited by age and experience. Even children whose phonological and syntactic systems are similar to those of the teacher often do not have concepts and ideas that are fully developed. This development takes time. If children are to experience joy in reading and develop a love for it, they must broaden their experiences regardless of the type of language they speak when they enter school. Stated simply, reading instruction must be considered an extension of the previous natural development of language on the part of the student if the instruction is to be successful.

Reading Instruction in Specific Language Communities

In any classroom in California can be found students who speak different languages or who speak a variety of American English dialects, or both. The unique aspects of each of these language backgrounds need special consideration so that appropriate reading and language experiences can be prepared. All language is governed by

rules. By comparing the rules of the language used in the classroom with the rules of the language used by the student, the teacher can foretell when the influence of the mother tongue will affect use of standard English. A teacher knowledgeable about language differences will not confuse these differences with problems in reading comprehension.

Students from Asian Language Communities. The students who have entered the United States in recent years from Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, and other Asian countries usually need to learn to speak English before they learn to read English. It is important for the teacher not to become overly confident when these students are able to read orally what sounds like adequate English. The teacher must always make sure that the students comprehend and understand the meanings contained in the written material. Although these students may do well in tasks related to arithmetic, science, and art, they should be encouraged through participation in a variety of language activities to become continually more effective in oral English.

For Americans who have gone to school in one of the Asian countires, adjustment to a very different writing system is involved. For example, books written in Asian languages open from right to left instead of from left to right; and many Asian languages are read from top to bottom, the reader starting at the right side of the page.

Some distinct aspects of the Chinese language that may affect the Chinese learner of English include the following:

1. The verb has only one form. Unlike the English verb, the Chinese verb is not conjugated to indicate tense. Tenses are indicated by the use of auxiliaries placed before or after the stable verb form.
2. Nouns are not inflected to indicate plural forms. Plurality is indicated by the use of auxiliaries in the form of specific or general number indicators placed before a noun (e.g., three book, many boy).
3. The Chinese article *a* is very specific and complex. It refers to the noun that it modifies and varies according to that noun. It is used as a unit of measure rather than as a general article (e.g., a book, a building, a string, a coat, a horse, a pencil).
4. Word order may not be manipulated to change meaning as is done in English. In Chinese the word *is,* for example, may not be repositioned to convert a statement into a question (e.g., "She is a nurse" may not be repositioned to "Is she a nurse?").
5. Spoken Cantonese and spoken Mandarin have an identical spoken sound to represent the pronouns he and she; but the written forms for these and three other singular pronouns in the

third person are very distinct when genders are indicated basically by word-radical forms: she (feminine); he (masculine); it (inanimate object); it (animate object); and He (deity).

6. In a Chinese dictionary, words are not arranged in alphabetical order. Instead, they are listed by word-radical groups and by the number of strokes each character has.
7. There is a tendency for Chinese speakers to drop, glottalize, or add a vowel sound to English endings in the consonants *t, d, s, l, p, b, k, f, g, r,* and *v.*
8. A tone system is used in Chinese as a device for distinguishing word meanings. Words having the same pronunciation may have four or more different tones to represent four different meanings. These meanings are, in turn, represented by four written forms.
9. There is a distinction between *n* and *l* in spoken Chinese; but some speakers, especially the Cantonese, use the letters interchangeably. The difference in pronunciation is particularly distinct in Mandarin.

Characteristics of the Japanese and Korean languages that can affect the use of English include the following:

1. Both Japanese and Korean have structures similar to each other but quite different from English language structure.
2. Both Japanese and Korean share the Chinese writing system. In addition, however, Korean uses a supplementary alphabetic system, and Japanese uses a syllabic one.
3. Unlike English, which uses a combination of function words (articles and auxiliary verbs) as well as word endings to show grammatical distinctions, Japanese and Korean use only function words or function particles that follow the content words.
4. The words *it* and *there* when used to introduce sentences such as "It is raining" or "There are many foreign languages spoken in California" do not exist in Japanese and Korean.
5. The Japanese and Korean vowel systems do not distinguish between words like *bit* and *bite* and *bet* and *bait.*
6. When words or syllables terminate in certain consonant sounds, a tendency exists to insert a vowel sound like *striku* for strike, *collegi* for college, and *churchi* for church.
7. The schwa sound that is used in English for unaccented vowels does not exist in Japanese and Korean.
8. Some consonant sounds that are not distinguished include *v, b, l,* and *r.*

Students from Black American Communities. No single dialect is spoken by black Americans. The dialects of many black Americans

are very similar to the dialects of white members living in the same geographic region. The attitude of teachers reflected in the manner in which they react to a student with a dialect different from their own may be a significant factor in the development of the student's self-image and consequent success in reading.

Students living in a community in which a variant American dialect is spoken have often been exposed to a wide range of dialects. They have available to them the language of television, radio, recordings, storekeepers, teachers, and members in the community who represent different geographic regions and economic backgrounds. Students are usually able, therefore, to understand a variety of dialects, including the dominant English dialect, even though they may not be able to produce the dialects themselves.

Some black speakers use a variety of dialects that have many features in common. Because of these similarities, these dialects are often referred to as black dialects to indicate the difference between them and the dominant English form. Students may use this ability to shift dialects when they read aloud by reading material written in a dominant English dialect as though it were written in a black dialect.

Areas of greatest difference between black English dialects and dominant English dialects include the following:

1. *It* will often be used for *there* (e.g., "It's a book on the table" instead of "There's a book on the table").
2. The verb will tend to be missing where a contraction is commonly used in standard English, especially in the present tense (e.g., "I here" and "We going").
3. More than a single negative form is acceptable in the black English vernacular (e.g., "I don't take no stuff from nobody").
4. Two or more consonant sounds appearing at the end of words in standard English tend to be reduced in the black English vernacular (e.g., *tes* for test and *des* for desk). The reduction of consonant clusters affects words that end in *s* (e.g., plurals, third person singular forms, and possessives like its and father's). The reduction also affects verbs in the past tense ending in -ed.
5. Words in which a medial or final *th* appears often change pronunciation in the black English dialect (e.g., *wit* or *wif* for with and *muver* for mother).
6. There are words in which *r* and *l* appear in medial or final positions in standard English. These sounds are often absent in the black English dialect.

7. Labels and concepts different from the dominant English dialect are generated from a variety of different experiences (e.g., the use of *bad* to mean good).

Students from Spanish Language Communities. Spanish-speaking students may live in communities where a wide range of language proficiencies exists. This range can extend from persons who speak only Spanish or English to those who are to some extent bilingual; i.e., proficient in two languages. This proficiency may vary from understanding (aural) and speaking (oral) to reading and writing (literate). A person may have any combination of these skills in the dominant and second language, whether English or Spanish. In addition, there may be persons who speak a dialect of American English called Spanglish—a combination of Spanish and English.

If the dominant language for the student is English, the teacher should supply reading materials in English within the language and experience of the student. For some Spanish speakers who live in a home and community in which Spanish is the dominant language, however, a bilingual-bicultural-biliterate program in which the student first learns to read in Spanish is a viable alternative to instruction in English alone. For these students reading materials in Spanish should be provided.

Gordon Menzie

The teacher's reaction to a student with a different dialect may significantly affect the student's self-image and success in reading.

Los Angeles Unified School District

The students in a single classroom may use a variety of dialects.

When two languages such as Spanish and English have similar writing systems, the teacher must be careful with the student literate in Spanish, for the student may be able to read English aloud but understand little or nothing of what he reads.

Some English sounds are lacking in Spanish and vice versa. Auditory discrimination of new sounds that are quite similar may not take place initially. Intensive aural-oral practice is essential to establish the speech habits of the target language. Some aspects of Spanish that may influence the Spanish-speaking learner of English include the following:

1. Strong influence of the Spanish *ch* on the English *sh* is a common problem. When *sh* is introduced because of its proximity in sound, the student may appear to say *share* for *chair* and *shoes* for *choose.*
2. In Spanish, *b* and *v* are exactly alike phonetically; each has two sounds. The use of one sound or the other is governed by accompanying sounds as follows:
   a. Sound one is made by the buzzing of both lips (e.g., *Ella boto la caja; Ella voto ayer*). The letters *b* or *v* surrounded by vowel sounds must be buzzed.
   b. Sound two is *b* as in boy (e.g., *El bote se caja; El vaso se caja*). Both sound like the *b* in boy. When *b* or *v* begins an

utterance or is not surrounded by vowel sounds, it is pronounced as the *b* in boy.

3. Spanish uses one word for *it is* (*es*) and for *there are* and *there is* (*hay*). Examples: *It is* a nice day (*Es un dia agradable*). *There are* many children at school (*Hay muchos niños en la escuela*). There *is* a teacher in the classroom (*Hay un profesor en la clase*).
4. In Spanish, articles are placed in some positions where English does not require them: *Veo al doctor Brown* (I see *the* Dr. Brown); *Asi es la vida* (That's *the* life).
5. In Spanish the adjective usually follows the noun and must agree with it in gender and number: *Yo tengo zapatos blancos* (I have shoes white).
6. There are five vowels in Spanish. The corresponding sounds in English are as follows: *a* as in father; *e* as in step; *i* as in machine; *o* as in over; and *u* as in ooze.
   The short vowel sounds *a, i, o,* and *u* are not used in Spanish.
7. The adverb, not the direct object, usually comes right after the verb. Example: I immediately saw . . . (*Yo vi immediatamente . . .*).
8. The consonant sounds *v, b, d, t, g, h, j, l, r, w, y,* and *z* are not pronounced the same in Spanish as in English. Knowledge of the point of articulation for the production of these sounds is necessary.
9. Beginning and ending sounds
   a. Spanish words *never* begin with the consonant clusters identified in italics as follows: *sp*eak, *st*ay, *sc*are, *sch*ool, *str*eet, *spr*ing, *scr*atch, *sph*ere, *sl*ow, *sm*all, *sn*ail, *sv*elte.
      Speakers of Spanish add an initial vowel sound *e* as, for example, in *e*speak, *e*street.
   b. Spanish words can end in any of the five vowels—a, e, i, o, u—or the consonants listed as follows:

1. l	*papel*		
2. d	*verdad*	*cara*	
3. r	*señor*	*come*	
4. z	*nariz*	*casi*	
5. j	*reloj*	*todo*	
6. y	*estoy*	*tu*	
7. n	*son*		
8. s	*casas*		

   Note: Speakers of Spanish have difficulty with ending sounds such as *m, p, k, c, b, d, f, g, j, l, t, v,* and *x* (voiced *z*). They also have difficulty in pronouncing the 371 consonant cluster endings used in English.

10. Some factors of intonation such as pitch and stress that can cause problems in communication are the following:
    a. *Stress.* Spanish words are stressed as follows:
        1) Stress on the last syllable: *pa pél, vi vi rás, te le vi sión, ciu dád*
        2) Stress on the next to last syllable: *cá sa, ma dé ra, clá ro*
        3) Stress on the third to last syllable: *jó ve nes, áng e les, te lé fo no*
        4) Stress on the fourth to last syllable: *llé va te los, mánd a se lo, có me te los*

        Most Spanish words are stressed on the last syllable (Group A words) or next to last syllable (Group B words). In contrast, English words are usually stressed on the first or second syllable; e.g., *con*stant (*constante*), *te*lephone (*telefono*). In English, long words may have two or even three stresses. Spanish uses only one stress except for adverbs ending in *mente* (e.g., *facilmente, rapidamente).*
    b. *Tone system.* English and Spanish have four tone levels. Spanish normally operates on the lower three levels except in cases of extreme anger or alarm. Then the fourth (upper) pitch is used. English usually operates on all four levels.
11. Spelling differences. Although many Latin derivatives are common to Spanish and English, there are some interferences between both spelling systems. Teachers should help students with the transfer of cognate vocabulary. Spanish does *not* use the doubled consonants or combination of consonants; i.e., *bb, dd, ff, gg, mm, pp, ss, tt, zz, th, gh, ph, sh,* or *hn.*

The analysis previously described contrasting English and several other languages and dialects presents only a small part of the difficulty of becoming a true bilingual-bicultural-biliterate individual.

The information in this section of the framework is presented in an attempt to provide educators with some knowledge of the differences between English and other languages and to encourage educators to develop professional growth in this area. It is important for teachers to be aware of the influences that the language the student uses at home has on the language spoken in the school. Changes in language will take place as the student is exposed to a wide variety of language experiences. Some of the influences from the language that the student uses at home will not change, however, and will become part of the student's American-English dialect.

Program Planning and Development

Linguistic, physiological, psychological, and cultural concerns are essential background components of reading instruction at all educational levels. Linguistic instruction begins with an assessment of the oral command that students have of language; the instruction is built on that foundation. Through oral language the child learns the system that directs the use of symbols on the printed page.

Instruction directed to the physiological elements includes development of the power to discriminate visually among letters and patterns of letters. Instruction also proceeds with the knowledge that when oral reading starts, readers must learn to articulate the responses that their eyes have already made. And the auditory processes will help guide the oral reading as they earlier helped the reader to learn how to talk. The kinesthetic sense also has a part to play, especially in the development of the sense of directionality. Together, all these physiological elements—eye, voice, ear, and muscle patterning—shape reading in ways that the instructional program cannot ignore.

Psychological factors affect the individual's learning pattern. These include motivation and purpose as well as concept formation, generalization, associative thinking, problem solving, and creative behavior. Any of the factors that influence individuality may play a role. The first task to be accomplished in the teaching of reading is to build a desire among students to read for themselves. If children are fortunate, they will have been read to long before they can read independently. In this way the children will have been given an opportunity to begin to make sense of a printed text. These children will see that books speak of experiences that they themselves have had. They will also see that through books they can share the experiences others have had recently and long ago, in this land and far away, on this earth and in never-never land. The classroom ought to make manifest the rewards of reading. Teachers should personify the joys of reading; as they read aloud, the very sound of their voices

should make immediate the promise of reading. The classroom ought to overflow with books wide in range of substance and sophistication so that students have continual opportunities to explore the wonderful world of books.

The instructional program should also include a concern for the cultural diversity that exists in America. The unique experiences that students bring to school must be welcomed, and the special ways in which the language of home and neighborhood treats these experiences must be made use of. Cultural circumstance in all its variety must be recognized, understood, respected, and employed to make reading instruction effective.

Approaches to Reading Instruction

Because program planning is the key to student success in reaching the objectives of a program, teachers must be aware of the approaches, materials, and classroom organization patterns through which reading instruction can be implemented. With this background the teachers will be prepared to plan the most effective instructional program in reading for all students assigned to them. This planning by the teacher is crucial to the success of the program.

The approach selected by the teacher grows out of the knowledge of how students learn and what they need to learn. Instruction should, therefore, always begin with assessment and diagnostic procedures. From the information gained about individual students, the teacher is then prepared to match the instructional needs, learning modalities, and interests of students with available materials, methods of instruction, and organizational patterns. The result of this process is the selection or creation of viable approaches to reading instruction in the classroom.

Approach to reading is a broad term used here to include all of the elements necessary for successful instruction. An approach to reading can be developed only by an analysis of the interrelationships among the factors listed as follows:

1. *Student assessment.* What are the strengths on which the program can be built, and what are the areas in which instruction is needed?
2. *Instructional materials.* What materials are most related to the interests and learning modalities of the students and are most useful in applying the instructional techniques selected?
3. *Organizational patterns.* What school and classroom organizational plans will create an environment most conducive to progress in reading achievement (consideration first being given to the results of student assessment and to the selection of methods and materials)?

4. *Instructional techniques.* What methods are most efficient in meeting diagnosed learning needs and best match the learning modalities of the students?

There are many valid approaches to reading instruction. No single approach and no single set of materials can be identified as equally appropriate for all students. Before selecting the most effective approach or combination of approaches for a particular student, class, grade level, school, or school district, teachers must be familiar with the options open to them. A great number of approaches are used in the classroom, often in combination. Some of these approaches are based primarily on techniques of instruction; others, on types of materials utilized; and others, on the organization of instruction. A true approach considers all of these elements in a comprehensive way. Although these approaches are most commonly associated with beginning instruction in reading, they can be adapted and combined for effective instruction in the upper elementary and high school grades. Some examples of these approaches are described as follows:

1. *Basal reader approaches.* In the basal reader approaches, the reader uses a set of reading textbooks organized in progressive levels of difficulty and often accompanied by workbook materials. Students are provided a sequential program intended to develop mastery of word identification and comprehension skills. The teaching of these skills is usually presented in detail in a teacher's manual. The relative emphasis on word identification and comprehension in the beginning of the program varies from one series to another. Different series also vary greatly in their method of teaching word identification skills. Some basal readers place considerable emphasis on the application of basic reading skills in literature and the other content areas.
2. *Individualized reading approaches.* Individualized reading approaches offer a wide variety of reading materials of all types. Through individual student-teacher conferences for diagnosis, skill instruction, and program planning, students are guided in the selection of materials and in independent work activities. Recordkeeping by students and teachers as well as flexible grouping for skill development are also features of these approaches.
3. *Language experience approaches.* In language experience approaches students dictate or write their own materials for the reading program. Through this use of their personal language, students discover that what is thought can be spoken, that what is spoken can be written, and that what is written can be read. Using as a base student-created materials, which are often com-

piled into individual or group booklets, teachers provide instruction in word identification and comprehension skills. Through this process students advance into reading other types of printed materials.

4. *Linguistic approaches.* Some linguistic approaches to the teaching of reading stress the importance of learning consistent phoneme (sound) and grapheme (letter) relationships in the beginning stages of the program. Words are arranged in regular spelling patterns. Other linguistic approaches stress the understanding of the syntax of sentences rather than the decoding of sounds in isolated words.
5. *Literature approaches.* In literature approaches a wide variety of literary materials is used to capture student interest in reading. In the early years of school, folktales, nursery rhymes, other repetitive stories, fables, and stories representing other genres may be read or told so that students begin to connect the sentences and words with which they are familiar in their spoken language with the printed symbols representing that language. Oral presentation of good literature should continue throughout a student's years in school.

   Students can be encouraged to use literature selections as models for dictated stories or for stories they write themselves. These model stories can be made into booklets just as are language-experience stories. The booklets can be the basis of the children's further reading and sharing. This type of experience can be enjoyable and beneficial for both the beginning reader and the mature reader; the major difference between the two is in the degree of sophistication of the stories the learner writes and reads.
6. *Phonics approaches.* Phonics approaches, clearly an essential component of all approaches, center on the mastery of sound-symbol relationships. These approaches may vary in the rate and sequence of the introduction of letters and patterns of letters and the sounds they represent; the degree to which vocabulary is developed; and the emphasis on various methods used to master sound-symbol relationships, such as analytic or synthetic and oral-aural or kinesthetic experiences. The application of phonetic skills in identifying words and in reading words in context is a necessary part of all phonics approaches.
7. *Theme approaches.* Areas of interest are central to theme approaches in reading. Many avenues of learning are utilized to provide knowledge for the theme under study. Resources include graded reading textbooks, texts from content fields,

library books, observation, experimentation, audiovisual material, resource persons, and study trips. With access to these resources, students of varying abilities are equipped to discuss and participate in program activities.

Student Assessment

Planning always begins with the search for information about the students who are to receive instruction. Group and individual assessment of reading achievement and interest is the first step. Diagnosis and prescription are not a single approach; they are a part of each approach. The diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses that contribute to the student's present reading achievement level and the prescription of instruction that will build on those strengths and alleviate those weaknesses are essential steps in reading instruction no matter which approach is followed. In view of this knowledge of reading programs and students, the teacher selects the approach or combination of approaches, the instructional materials, the organizational plan for grouping students, and the instructional techniques to be used.

Needs Assessment. Needs assessment begins with the process of gaining information about students that affects their success in reading. Both informal assessment and formal evaluation should be used. Items to be assessed include the following:

- Experiential background: to discover the concepts readers bring to the printed page in their search for meaning
- Language: to discover competencies already developed and special problems associated with second-language instruction, variant dialects, and the lack of language facility
- Attitudes: to discover feelings and emotions toward school and reading that can influence success
- Interests: to discover areas in which reading will most likely offer personal rewards
- Motor-sensory abilities: to discover the modalities through which learning will most easily occur and the areas in which special help or medical attention is required
- Specific reading abilities: to discover in what ways the student functions most effectively in the reading process and in what components of the program the student needs additional strength

Assessment may lead to increased proficiency in self-appraisal on the part of students. They can grow in self-discovery, taking increasing responsibility for their own development. There is magic in the personal relationship that develops in diagnostic interviews for informal assessment. The student feels that someone who cares is

listening. Informal techniques can preserve humanness and individuality in learning patterns. Quantitative data, such as test scores, give insufficient information about a student as a person. Such data should be interpreted in combination with information gained from informal assessment and diagnosis.

Whether formal or informal, assessment can be carried on in many ways. Published instruments offer only one avenue for the collection of pertinent information about students. Teachers are limited only by their imagination in creating ways to assess and diagnose. Two methods that have particular value are the informal reading inventory and the reading miscue inventory.

Informal Reading Inventory. In an informal reading inventory, the student is given passages to read orally and silently. These passages are on sequential levels of difficulty and begin at a point where the student can read successfully with ease. The teacher records any problems the student encounters while reading orally and asks the student questions about the material read silently. The questions used to appraise comprehension should show a balance among factual, inferential, and vocabulary-type questions.

The informal reading inventory provides an opportunity for the teacher to work with students to explore their interests and help them acquire self-understanding. The inventory helps the teacher to build rapport through an informal, constructive relationship. It encourages students to acquire an objective understanding of their progress in reading. The informal reading inventory also does the following:

- Supplies objective evidence of how a student is functioning in reading at the time
- Gives the range of reading levels: the individual's independent level, at which material can be read fluently; the instructional level, which is adequate for comprehension; the frustration level, which causes tension and failure; and the auding level, which estimates capacity for reading
- Reveals specific difficulties in word identification and comprehension
- Discloses the quality of comprehension and gives an opportunity to observe higher-level skills, such as organizing ideas, thinking critically, making inferences, and applying ideas
- Makes possible a comparison between the student's ability in oral and silent reading
- Provides content similar to that contained in the textbooks and reference materials used in the classroom
- Gives an opportunity to adapt the instructional procedure to the student's response

The informal reading inventory as a systematic means of evaluating a student's reading performance may be modified in various ways. Taped recordings of an individual's responses may be used by the teacher and student to note clues and perceive patterns of strengths and areas that need development. Shorthand records may also disclose patterns of response. While the emphasis in most informal reading inventories is on oral responses, written responses may be used effectively to assess comprehension. At times it may be advisable to check retention by delaying the comprehension check until after the reading of other selections.

Another modification is a group reading inventory that may be used with a small group or a class to assess a student's comprehension. This inventory is formulated in a way similar to the individual inventory. Students may be asked to read a passage and discuss a variety of ideas to furnish evidence of their ability to get the literal meaning, draw inferences, and understand the meaning of key words. Other similar selections may be used at the middle and the end of the semester. In this way the teacher may note clues of the effectiveness of instructional techniques, and the student may know what progress has been made.

After students have analyzed their reading needs and achievement, they may be given a comprehensive list of the objectives of the program. These objectives may be listed on a sheet of paper in a left-hand column. The right-hand side may be divided into two columns. In the first column on the right, the students check the item on which they planned to work. In the other column they note the progress they have made. In this way students check their own goals and measure their own progress. Students who are cognizant of their objectives usually achieve more. Self-evaluation is an integral part of successful instruction and learning.

Reading Miscue Inventory. The reading miscue inventory is used to analyze a student's oral reading. A miscue occurs each time there is a difference between what the reader thinks is printed on the page and what is actually there. It is not the number of miscues that is significant but the quality and variety of the miscues. These factors are determined by the effect of each miscue on meaning and by the degree to which language background and concept development caused the miscue.

The inventory itself is conducted in much the same way as the oral reading portion of the informal reading inventory. Rather than asking leading questions following the reading, the teacher encourages the student to talk about the passage in as much detail as possible. Usually, the student's oral reading and discussion of the

material are tape-recorded for more thorough analysis at a later time. Commercially prepared coding and profile sheets are sometimes used to record the data. On the basis of reading strengths and weaknesses identified through this process, the teacher plans an instructional program for the individual students or for small groups of students who reveal similar patterns.

The reading miscue inventory, like the informal reading inventory, can be used at the beginning of the instructional period, at regular intervals during instruction, and at the end of instruction. Both inventories encourage the student to become a full partner with the teacher in the development of increased reading power. And both provide essential information needed for program planning.

Diagnosis–Prescription. By learning about individual students and their reading ability through assessment and diagnosis, the teacher can synthesize and interpret the information, make tentative hypotheses, and use the understanding gained to help students improve their reading. It is precisely at this point that teachers meet their greatest challenge. All their knowledge about the reading process and the individual student must be viewed as a whole and related as they plan the instructional program for students. A teacher can begin by utilizing one approach only to shift to another as the need arises. The teacher can utilize several approaches to meet the needs of different students or groups of students. A combination of two or more approaches may prove to be the most effective teaching strategy.

The quality of the teaching must somehow reflect the individuality of the reading act. Effective reading instruction cannot be routine. Whenever students can anticipate exactly what will be attempted day in and day out, the effectiveness of instruction will inevitably suffer. For example, vocabulary words ought not to precede every piece of reading at every stage. Sometimes vocabulary can be developed from the reading along the way and sometimes it can follow the reading. Workbook-type exercises ought not to be a part of every reading lesson. Students should not feel with dread certainty that, however well they read the piece, they must bear the inevitable burden of paper work. And follow-up work should have variety. It should be assigned only as needed; then it should reinforce and place in new perspective the learnings being developed. Sometimes comprehension may be checked through discussion, and sometimes students may play out the story in simple creative dramatics. At other times students may practice creative writing. And many times they may be given the best reward of all–time to browse through a book.

Prescription must always be faithful to the nature of the reading act. Comprehension is the ultimate goal. Meaning in the reading process results from the interaction between reader and author and between the reader and the language system. None of these factors operates independently, and instruction must allow for interaction. The reader's language patterns and experience will help to determine the approach and the materials to be used as much as the reader's need for the mastery of any part of the language system.

Finally, prescription must enable the individual to make progress in reading. Young readers fashion ways of reading as unique as their ways of speaking. Individuals may learn some parts of the process very well and other parts moderately well or not well at all. The difficulty in coping with this unevenness in achievement is so great that many have been tempted to say that this condition should never have been allowed to develop. Yet unevenness in achievement is an inevitable characteristic of human development. Even, regular, entirely homogeneous achievement will come only when a substitute for people exists. As the teaching of reading grows better, the range in achievement will become greater, not less. Responsiveness to human potential is, after all, a prime characteristic of good education. Materials must be those the individual student can profit from. What is read must also be of interest and value to the student. The approach must fit the student's learning modality. The curricular objectives must fit the individual's diagnosed need. Only through this process of continual assessment and prescription will the student achieve the objectives of the instructional program in reading.

Instructional Materials

Effective reading instruction requires a wide variety of instructional materials to meet the needs of students who have highly diverse cultural backgrounds, language patterns, and learning styles. These materials must include not only textbooks but also trade books, periodicals, learning games, films, filmstrips, slides, recording tapes, charts, study prints, manipulative materials, models, and realia. Many systems can be compiled from a variety of materials selected for a particular purpose. Teacher-produced and student-produced materials also provide a valuable instructional resource.

Selection of the best available instructional materials is vital to the success of the program. Among the factors that should be considered in making this selection are the following:

1. Relationship of the materials to district curricular objectives in reading
2. Provision of continuous learning experiences through all levels of instruction

3. Variety of materials to match differences in student learning modalities, interests, achievement and maturity levels, and cultural and language backgrounds, including the following:
   a. Materials that reflect with pride America's cultural, racial, ethnic, religious, language, sex, and age differences
   b. Materials that recognize multisensory approaches to learning
   c. Materials at each reading level that appeal to students with varying interests and maturity levels
   d. Materials that provide diagnostic tools and individualized experiences, encouraging self-instruction
4. Fidelity of materials to the reading process, including recognition of the following:
   a. Oral base of language
   b. Relationship of listening, speaking, and writing to reading comprehension
   c. Role of background experiences in relation to reading comprehension
   d. Contributions of linguististic science to language mastery
   e. Development of reading abilities together with their application in the various content areas of the curriculum
5. Quality of materials in writing style, organization, physical attractiveness, and durability
6. Usefulness and soundness of guide materials for teachers

Organizational Patterns

Many patterns exist for organizing students in the reading program. These patterns are designed to meet the instructional needs of the student and to provide efficient use of student and teacher time. Students should be continually involved in productive activity, successfully working on material that they find worthwhile. Teachers should be able to offer instruction to all those students who can profit from it. Space and time are the variables used in organizing students within the total school or grade and within the individual classroom.

In the organization of the total school population, plans illustrating several options often used in combination are the following:

1. *Cooperative or team teaching.* Two or more teachers plan and teach cooperatively, sharing responsibility for the students assigned to them.
2. *Departmentalized grouping.* Selected teachers are responsible for reading instruction for all students within a school or grade level.
3. *Differentiated staffing.* Professionals and paraprofessionals assume different roles (such as master teacher, resource teacher,

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In learning-station instruction, small groups of students often work in centers designed for special interests, subjects, or purposes.

reading specialist teacher, librarian, teacher aide, or student tutor) in the instructional program in reading according to their training and experience.

4. *Multigrades.* Classes made up of children of different ages progress from one reading level to the next as defined achievement is attained.
5. *Self-contained classroom.* Teachers are responsible for instruction in all subject areas for the students assigned to them.
6. *Specially designated groups.* Students are grouped (or regrouped for reading instruction) on the basis of achievement level and expected rate of progress.

In the organization of students within a classroom, plans illustrating several options often used in combination, each during a portion of the school day, are the following:

1. *Individualized instruction.* Individualized instruction is a most propitious way to organize for instruction in reading. It provides for an optimum learning environment for each student in view of each student's uniqueness. It sets out to meet each student's educational needs in terms of (a) his styles of learning; (b) his rate of learning; (c) his values and interests; and (d) his background of experiences. The teacher continually assesses the

child's strengths and weaknesses and uses strategies and materials to provide for skill development and reinforcement. Individualized instruction takes advantage of the learner's unique talents and employs them productively as an integral component of the learning environment.

2. *Learning-station instruction.* Individuals or small groups of students work in centers (in or outside of the classroom) designed for special interests, subjects, or purposes.
3. *Small-group instruction.* Students are grouped for instruction on the basis of achievement level or interest.
4. *Team learning.* Students (two or more) work together on a common activity.
5. *Whole-class instruction.* All the students in a class are simultaneously involved in the same activity.

Instructional Techniques

Whether he is age four or eighteen, the student enters the classroom with some knowledge about language and certain abilities to communicate through language. Any approach to reading instruction must provide opportunities to extend that knowledge and those abilities that enable the student to become more and more successful in the act of reading increasingly complex and diverse materials.

San Juan Unified School District

In team learning, two students frequently work together on a common activity.

While it is possible in this framework to discuss basic linguistic abilities one at a time, it is neither possible nor desirable to emphasize any one of these abilities while ignoring the others, even for a moment. Reading is inextricably intertwined with the other arts of language: listening, speaking, and writing. Good instruction in reading takes advantage of the close supporting relationships among the arts of language. Furthermore, the basic linguistic abilities essential to the reading process do not function separately but integrally as the student reads. When instruction isolates one element from another to any significant extent, the strengths of the whole process suffer. For example, if word analysis becomes the preoccupation of the program, readers may call out words one by one but may fail to sense the unifying relationship that syntax and intonation supply. In that case the reader has little sense of what the author intended to communicate.

Word Identification. The task of identifying words in reading is critical at all levels—from the primary grades through the high school. From the beginning, identification should be taught so that students learn a system. Identification of individual words is not as important as the development of a method of attack. Phonic clues, structural clues, and context clues are particularly emphasized in beginning reading instruction. And as readers acquire facility, they use only as much systematic analysis as they need to understand the flow of meaning. But all these aids to word identification continue to serve the reader. The task may be thought of as "vocabulary building" in the upper grades, but in essence it is the same task relying on the same identification abilities emphasized in beginning instruction in reading.

The quick identification of words is important. To find meaning, the reader must not only grasp the significance of individual words but also must perceive the way all the words fit together to make sense. If the reader must spend a long time analyzing every word, he will find difficulty in sensing the unifying relationships among the words. These relationships are often crucial to the reader in making sense of a particular word.

Word identification is promoted best when related to a specific reading task. At least oral context and, preferably, written context should surround the word to be identified. The desire to understand is one of the best systems to reinforce identification. Without this immediate reward of practical application (for example, when words are taught in lists), methods of attack tend to be learned inefficiently.

Sound-Symbol Relationships. Without question the clue to decoding traditionally called "phonics" is the basic word identification ability. The sounds and sound patterns of our language are represented to a high degree of regularity by letters and letter patterns. Few children can ever become fully effective, efficient readers unless they master the English letter-to-sound correspondences and letter-pattern to sound-pattern correspondences. The sooner children learn the relationships well, the sooner they become independent, self-directing readers. The knowledge of sound-symbol is a necessary, although insufficient, competency for the good reader.

Decoding instruction may be approached as follows:

1. *Analytic method.* Whole words are first taught by sight or visual recall. These words are chosen for their semantic utility and frequency. Children are then taught to analyze these words. The first stage of analysis is that of consonant substitution. If the children learned the word *cat* by sight, they are taught that they can substitute *b* for *c* and get *bat;* or that they can substitute *p* for *t* and get *cap.* The second stage of analysis is that of vowel substitution. If the children have learned the word *bat* by sight, they can substitute an *e* for the *a* and get *bet.*
2. *Synthetic method.* In this method the words are again chosen for their semantic utility and frequency; but the child is not taught whole words. Instead, sounds are ascribed to the separate letters. Words are synthesized by sounding successive letters (e.g., *b-a-t*).
3. *Spelling-pattern method.* Here a different criterion for word choice is employed. Words are selected not for their semantic utility or frequency but for the regularity of the spelling pattern. Whole words are taught by contrasting sounds in different pairs of words. *Mat,* for example, is contrasted with *mate.* Sounds are related to groups of letters (spelling patterns) rather than to single letters.
4. *Sound-to-letter method.* This method is usually associated with the teaching of spelling or written expression although it can be related to instruction in reading. For example, as students dictate text, as in the language experience approach, they can be asked to spell some words. The criterion for word selection is again semantic usefulness to the students who dictate. They think of the sounds of the word they wish to employ and attempt to represent these sounds in letters.

In addition to concentrating on the sounds of a single word, the reader can find help in the decoding process by concentrating on the sounds of an entire phrase, sentence, or passage. The student is aided

in the reading process by hearing the sounds and relating those sounds to the written material. These sounds may be rhyming or repetitive or may occur in some systematic sequence in which the sounds can be anticipated from the context. For example, as a nursery rhyme is repeated or a favorite story is reread to children, they pick out the words that match the sounds they say or hear.

At the present time evidence based on research does not unequivocally support one sound-symbol method of instruction over another. Each method can interact and reinforce the other methods in the reading process. The omission of any of these methods is to limit the student's understanding of sound-symbol relationships and his power to utilize them. The phonic clue remains fundamental in reading instruction from the early years in elementary school through high school.

Structural Analysis. The English language employs standard units in the structure of words that change the meaning or use of a word or influence its pronunciation. Units used to effect changes in meaning or in use are called prefixes or suffixes or inflections. Units influencing pronunciation are called syllables.

Prefixes and suffixes may be thought of as additions to basic word forms or roots. Unsophisticated readers find that prefixes obscure word identifications more than suffixes do. The reason is that as the readers eyes move from left to right, the prefix masks a basic word form that the reader would otherwise quickly identify. Standard units are also added to basic word forms by means of inflected endings, including tense signals in verbs, comparative and superlative degrees in adjectives and adverbs, and plural signals in nouns. These forms are taught so that students can recognize a known word when it has been changed to fit into a new context.

Pronunciation units are called syllables. In English a new syllable is formed each time a new vowel or vowel-like sound occurs. The consonants are allocated to the separate vowel sounds in the word according to accepted rules of syllabication. Students are taught how to break a word into syllables to facilitate recognition and pronunciation.

Context Clues. Context clues depend on the nature of the text. If the text is minimal in substance, then the clues to the unknown word provided by the surrounding words are correspondingly minimal. To use context clues wisely, readers must think through the content suggested by the text. They must use that content in a systematic review of logical alternatives before they choose a reasonable meaning for the unknown word.

Beginning textbooks that are barren in content foster a word-calling process rather than initiation into the true reading process, which relies on context clues for interpretation. Some approaches to the beginning stages, such as the use of language experience or a student-dictated text or some basal readers, are not bound by restrictions in the language employed. In these cases the context clue is useful, and children are reading.

Indeed, for most reading, the context clues steadily rise in importance through the later elementary school years, high school, and beyond. In using context clues, the reader searches for the meaning of the entire unit (sentence, paragraph, chapter, or story) and is helped to choose the meaning for a word in the pursuit of total sense. The reader also expects certain words and sentence messages because of the expected sense.

Comprehension. Comprehension results from interaction between the knowledge and experience of the reader and the three major cuing systems of language: semantic; sound-symbol relationships, including stress, pitch, and juncture; and syntax. It is only in the interplay among all of these elements that the reader reconstructs the meaning encoded by a writer. The instructional program in reading must be concerned not only with literal interpretation but also with inferential meaning and critical evaluation of the material read.

Success in applying the semantic system in the reconstruction of meaning depends on the similarity in background of the writer and reader. The words used by the writer must have the same meaning for both reader and writer. When significant cultural and language differences exist, the chance of confusion or misconception is great. Unsophisticated readers should have an opportunity to build their comprehension skills by reading material that presents a minimum of semantic problems. Wide reading provides for the student a base with which to handle a wide range of semantic distinctions.

Beyond word identification the first component in comprehension is the sentence. Here the elements of pitch, stress, and juncture are fundamental to comprehension. Pitch makes a difference as tone goes up or down to signal statement, question, command, or exclamation. Stress makes a difference as variations in loudness or emphasis change meaning both within and among words. Juncture makes a difference as the grouping of words in phrases exerts its influence on meaning.

Syntax makes explicit the ways in which the language signals the relationships among words. To comprehend what they read, readers must know the basic patterns of English sentences and the transformations of these patterns. English is a language in which

word order to a large extent determines meaning. Although readers do not need to know the grammatical terminology that describes word functions and sentence structures in order to read, they must understand the relationships among the words in a linguistic unit. In fact, in order to derive the deep structure or meaning of nearly every sentence they read, they must infer the base sentence or sentences that have been transformed or combined. For the mature and efficient reader, this process (like the process of word decoding) occurs semiautomatically at such a rapid rate that the reader is unaware of each step or clue. For the beginning or unsuccessful reader, however, failure to comprehend can result from any one of a myriad of possible miscues.

At the level of connected discourse, attention is paid to the structural relationships among sentences. The fullest comprehension requires rising above the literal to the inferential; that is, to induction, deduction, analogy, and other logical processes. It also invites individualistic, imaginative elaborations based on what the writer has suggested. These sets of competencies are sometimes called "thinking skills." Although these competencies are not unique to the reading process, they are essential to success in reading. They include such abilities as getting the main idea, separating fact from opinion, sensing cause and effect relationships, making judgments, and applying information to new situations. These competencies are developed in all areas of the school curriculum; but until they are successfully applied in the reading process, the major objectives in reading instruction cannot be achieved.

Readers need also to see the structural relationships within well-written paragraphs. They can be taught to find the topic sentence that states the key idea being developed in the paragraph. For example, they can be given a choice of phrases, one of which summarizes the main idea, and then asked to associate that phrase with the topic sentence. They can be taught the relationships of the other sentences to the topic sentence. A sentence may give details, explain, compare or contrast, or repeat the main idea.

In larger units of writing, the reader can be taught to see the relationships among the paragraphs. For example, the opening paragraph may outline the topics that subsequent paragraphs will develop. There may be a simple chronological or steps-in-a-sequence relationship among these paragraphs. Or the relationships may be based on strict logic, one paragraph following from another. At the end there may be a paragraph that sums up the chronology, the process, or the logic.

Critical evaluation is also an essential component of comprehension. In a sense, students need to learn to conduct dialogues with the

author. They should agree, disagree, support, and qualify as they read. In exposition they should note gaps in information or logic, and in literature they should observe failures in motivation or credibility. They should make imaginative and logical inferences. They are encouraged to use their gathering store as a critical reference resource to bring to each new reading they undertake.

Comprehension is also affected by the rate with which it is conducted. Students find meaning difficult to reconstruct if their reading rate is much slower than their normal rate of speech. Faster rates, of course, make for more efficient reading if comprehension meets the requirements of the specific reading task. Flexibility of rate is the key to success. The most efficient rate depends on a number of factors, including the familiarity of the reader with the subject matter, the complexity of the language, and the purpose for reading.

Reading in the Content Areas

To read well in any field of learning is to communicate well in that field of learning. Each subject has a separate vocabulary, a separate manner of statement, and a separate structure. No one can learn to read effectively in any field of learning except within the substance of that field. Young readers learn to read each of their school subjects only as they learn to manage the concepts, ideas, attitudes, skills, and appreciations native to the particular area of study.

The fields of learning employ two principal modes, the literary and the expository. When reading is devoted to the literary uses of language, it emphasizes the connotative properties of words and sentences. These properties function in prose, drama, poetry, biography, and the rest of literature. The emphases are on tone and sound, on emotion and empathetic response. In the teaching of reading as exposition, however, the denotative properties of words and sentences are of prime importance. These properties function in most fields of learning outside of the fine arts. They also function in the everyday tasks of living: reading a newspaper, answering the examination for a driver's license, and meeting a thousand other practical demands. The emphases are on freedom from ambiguity and on reasoned and dispassionate response. The qualitative differences between the literary and the expository are, of course, not absolute; they are relative. But the relative emphases become important as readers attempt to sharpen their focus in approaching a new text.

Comprehension in the literary mode is affected by the fact that, as is any fine art, communication occurs in large part through

suggestion, allusion, and indirection. In short, it is heavily dependent on inference. If comprehension in the literary mode is confined to the literal, much of the artistic intent is short-circuited. Stories do not lend themselves well to logical analysis for organization of idea or application of idea. For example, one of the skills long listed in basic reading instruction has been reading for main ideas. Most of the paragraphs in stories are very short and are not primarily devoted to explaining. Most of them represent a dialogue carrying on the movement of the story. The story as a whole does not primarily represent the logical development or application of ideas. Reading for main ideas in story materials is, in fact, simply reading for main events. A main event is a happening arranged in consideration of aesthetic impact. A main idea, however, is a theory or a process arranged primarily in consideration of logical development. Reading for main ideas cannot be taught by asking students to read for main events.

Exposition, on the other hand, is governed by logic. Readers are required to be objective, establishing in their minds a communication for which the writer attempts to supply complete and precise details. That kind of mind-set or expectation must be developed. Words are examined for their denotations. Minimal ambiguity and redundancy occur in exposition, and the concept-bearing words signify close correspondence with the data intended to be communicated. The ideal word in exposition (mathematical terms come closest to this ideal) has one meaning, not several. The ideal sentence in exposition conveys a message that is identical as issued by the writer and as received by the reader. Punctuation assumes new and critical importance. By helping the student to strip away the modifiers and words in apposition to reveal the basic sentence, the teacher provides a valuable technique of understanding complex exposition. Both among the sentences and among the paragraphs, a clear logic of structure is sought. The standard logical frameworks, such as induction, deduction, and analogy, are employed over and over again to examine, advance, and apply the essential ideas of exposition. In the reading of exposition, the key question centers on the ways in which this field handles its ideas.

In every classroom, reading instruction should be a natural part of each area of learning where reading is important to subject mastery. One deterrent to the full realization of reading instruction in the content areas is a mystique that has grown up around the teaching of reading and a belief that only teachers who have specialized in its mysteries can be entrusted to give instruction. The content of each subject area demands unique reading abilities. These abilities must be taught, and they cannot be taught effectively apart from the content

of that subject. Neither can these abilities be taught once and for all at an early educational level. As the complexity of the subject matter increases from grade to grade, increasing sophistication must be brought to long-rehearsed reading techniques.

Another difficulty in the application of reading competencies to the areas of learning is the level of reading skills required in subject-area textbooks. A reading textbook series is usually developed in a sequential pattern of reading and concept difficulty; a subject-area textbook series, on the other hand, is developed in a sequential pattern of concept difficulty alone. This distinction is important. The reading abilities required to master even simple basic concepts as presented in a particular textbook may be ahead of the student's reading achievement. The subject-area teacher must be able to diagnose this problem quickly and provide alternate opportunities to learn through the use of audiovisual materials, class discussion, and supplementary reading of materials within the reading achievement range of the student.

A rationale often used by subject-area teachers failing to teach reading skills is that there is insufficient time in a curriculum to teach both reading and content. But the teaching of efficient reading saves time for more content instruction. For example, a teacher who spends just a day or two, when a new textbook is introduced, in teaching a guided reading lesson can save weeks of time wasted by students who fail to sense the organizational pattern of the book; to see the relationship of headings and subheadings to content; to discover the glossary, index, or other self-helps provided; to grasp the author's style in presenting generalizations and supporting details; or to use the illustrations, graphs, or summaries provided in the text. These matters are all obvious to the teacher who is a sophisticated reader, but they can be revelations to the young reader approaching a book for the first time.

Instruction in Literature

The attitudes and mores of a society are reflected in its literature. From the beginning of time, men and women have, through the telling and retelling of their experiences and impressions of life, preserved their culture; have reflected their emotions, values, desires, and ambitions; and have developed and clarified their understanding of themselves and their world. This oral tradition has matured into our priceless literary heritage. Literature is an integral part of our being, a natural outgrowth of our basic humanity.

The purpose of instruction in literature is not just to provide knowledge about literary history or great authors and their works, as important as these things are. Nor is the purpose just to develop an

ability to read literary masterpieces. The purpose must be to release the power of literature to change the life of the reader through involvement. This power comes from literature's ability to hold life in suspension, permitting readers to get a clearer, deeper insight into the human condition, to understand themselves better, and to develop a more creative response to life by becoming aware of the range of options from which they may choose each time they make a decision in life. In short, the purpose is to become more humane.

Nowhere is this power to make the reader more humane more striking than in the literature that springs from America's cultural diversity. Children and young adults can project themselves into the lives of their fellow Americans whose experiences are very different from their own. In recent years minority groups are depicted more and more in books for young Americans. These books can reveal what individual members of a group are like. For students belonging to a minority group, the books can be helpful in developing a sense of pride in the accomplishments of their forebears and in inspiring feelings of self-worth and identity. At the same time these books can help students to gain knowledge of other cultures and histories as well as respect and appreciation for cultural traditions and values unlike their own.

In our society students are made aware at an early age of apparent sexual, racial, and ethnic differences. They hear of social attitudes and values associated with skin color and hair textures, and they learn of the assignment of positions of "superiority" or "inferiority" on the basis of sex, race, or ethnic group. Some books reinforce the stereotyped image not only of groups usually thought of as minorities but also of other groups such as women. It is of paramount importance that librarians, teachers, administrators, members of book selection committees, and others assuming the responsibility for selecting available literature be discriminating in their choice. They should eliminate those books that can perpetuate stereotyped ideas in the minds of one segment of the population while doing damage to and alienating others. The selection of books that dispel such thinking ought to be the rule. Books representing a broad spectrum of minority experience and dealing with authentic situations and realistic characterizations in language and illustration will serve to help youth develop an awareness of the backgrounds and feelings of people different from themselves. These books will help young persons to dispel any preconceived ideas they may have acquired about minority groups.

Response to literature is far more than an intellectual understanding. It is an appeal to the spirit as well as the mind. One

goal can, for example, be to increase the student's ability to understand what it is like to walk in someone else's shoes. Instruction in literature must include opportunities for young readers to test their affective responses with their peers through class interaction, seminar discussions, and dramatic activities. A value system that is only intellectualized is dead; to be viable, it must be lived.

A lasting appreciation of literature does not develop naturally from basic linguistic ability. Students can strengthen their reading ability through the study of literature, but literature should not be cut into bits and pieces as a way of developing basic linguistic abilities. The outcomes desired in developing basic linguistic abilities and in developing literary appreciation are simply different. It follows, then, that the teaching approach for each must also be different.

In the teaching of literature, opportunities must be provided for students to discover what makes a good story, a fine poem, an exciting biography, or a stirring play. Students should learn to recognize the precise selection of words made by authors as well as other techniques that contribute to the literary style of each author. The literary terms we use (such as *conflict, suspense, climax*) do not have to be difficult or unduly extensive. Literature is studied not for the purpose of dissection of the text or for the grilling of hapless students; it is studied so that the potential for enjoyment that exists in literature can be demonstrated. The reader goes beyond the hard-won skills taught in basic reading instruction to those abilities that permit readers to enjoy thoroughly the content of literature.

Literature is an art form. Just as identical sketches from each student are not wanted by the art teacher, so are identical responses from each student not wanted by the teacher of literature. Individual, creative, imaginative responses are what the teacher encourages. Readers are helped by the teacher to make from their own beings, their own thinking, their own feelings—indeed, their own reading—responses that are uniquely theirs. They must learn to join imaginatively with the writer to attain a new experience. The response to literature must include the engendering of new ideas. Literature is more than a reservoir of the great ideas of the past; it is also an Aquarian fountain from which new ideas flow.

Three Fields of Exposition

This section contains descriptions of reading tasks in three fields of exposition: mathematics, science, and social studies. These descriptions illustrate the nature and importance of reading instruction in each of the content areas. The point of these

descriptions is that the reading tasks in each field of learning must be met in the day-by-day teaching in that field. These tasks may not be delegated to a reading teacher or to anyone else; they are an integral part of the subject being taught.

The first task for the reader of expository material in any field is to develop a command of key concept-bearing words; that is, the words that label the basic ideas operative in the field. Obviously, command of these words includes more than simple ability to identify what the words are through word-attack skills. Much more important is the sense of the idea behind the word; for without a sharply defined sense of what the essential elements of the key concepts are, readers have no way of thinking in that field. They have no tools to approach the content. In a genuine and basic sense they cannot read in that field, however competent they are in phonics, structural analysis, or any other word-attack skill.

Reading in mathematics. In the study of mathematics, readers must learn to cope with four different vocabularies: numbers, numerals, abstract symbols, and words. In using these vocabularies, readers must be clear about the object or idea for which each symbol stands. Moreover, references to objects or ideas are precise. When used with mathematical intent, words can require new interpretation.

The reading of numbers and numerals requires a new attitude toward the grouping of symbols. In reading a word, the response is a sound value signaled by letters (e.g., *w-o-r-d*). In reading a number or numeral, the response is to place value signaled by numerals (e.g., *7, 2, 9, 8*). In fact, because of this different attitude in reading words and numbers, readers often overlook a quantity in a problem if it is written as a word (*five*) rather than as a numeral (*5*).

Reading in mathematics requires precise understanding of a text that is the most compact a reader will encounter. Even science, except when it relies on mathematical statement, is somewhat more redundant and hence gives the reader more than one chance at comprehension.

The approach to reading mathematics is hence very deliberate. Each part of every statement has a particular purpose. Readers must read carefully from the beginning; they do not have an introductory paragraph to apprise them of what is ahead. They must use the same brief piece of text to obtain the general structure and to secure the details to fit into that structure. In other subjects they can usually read along through successive pieces of text without having to reread constantly. In a word problem in mathematics, however, readers may need to read once to see what this problem is and what processes that problem will require. Then they may need to read again to

determine the quantities to use in those processes or to be certain that they employ the processes in the correct sequence. They may want to estimate an outcome, and that process may require a further check. Or they may want to make certain that they overlooked no necessary operation or missed any quantitative information. That kind of reading is very intensive reading indeed.

Reading in science. Of all the reading that a student must do, none is more heavily weighted in vocabulary than is science. The teacher needs to examine science material intended for group reading to determine the vocabulary burden. Moreover, the teacher must help readers to note that concept-bearing words demand great precision in response. Science tolerates very little ambiguity.

One of the immediate effects of this demand for rigor is on the size of the concept-bearing vocabulary that readers seek to retain for the long term. They need to have help in filtering out the crucial terms so that their memories are not overburdened. Priority lists of words are helpful to the science reader.

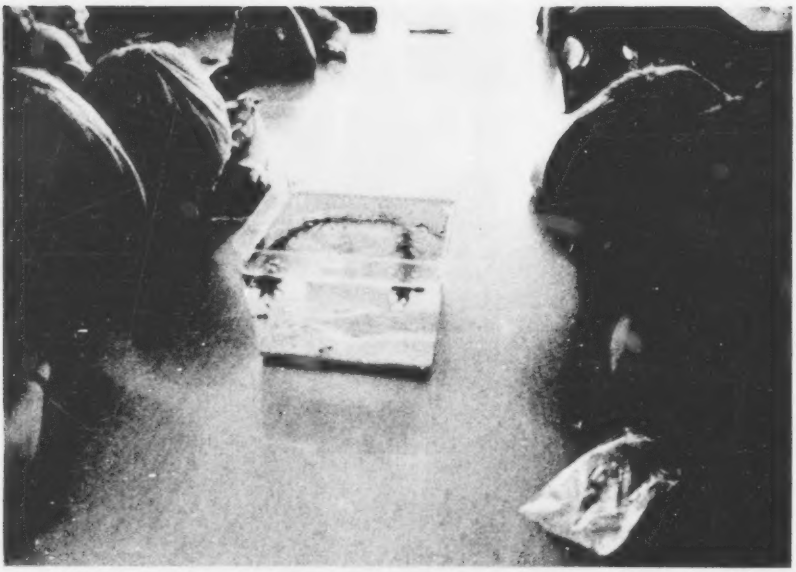
Concrete associations derived from observation, experimentation, and demonstration aid long-term retention of vocabulary. The translation of formulas, equations, diagrams, charts, and graphs into concept-bearing words (as well as the reverse of this process) also helps to provide pegs on which to hang terms. The commonly employed Latin and Greek roots as well as the more frequent prefixes and suffixes show readers recurring elements in the technical terms and thus give them a way of assisting memory.

The concept-bearing words of science are carried in very compact text. Readers must be taught to concentrate their attention unwaveringly. They must learn never to pass by a single paragraph without being able to translate the gist of the content into their own words and to express its relationship to preceding ideas.

One way to have the reader learn this thoughtful kind of reading is through the example of the teacher. Teachers can read aloud sections where key ideas are being developed. The pacing of the reading, the underlining by the voice, and the intonational phrasing will exemplify how the silent reading ought to go.

Another way to help the reader through tightly written text is through use of outlines. The outline can show the overall structure into which the individual concepts fit. It is the relationship among the concepts within the organizing framework that is critical to comprehension in science.

It is essential for the reader to have a clear "set" or sense of purpose when he begins to read a science text. The reader should note the headings and should formulate key questions that the text



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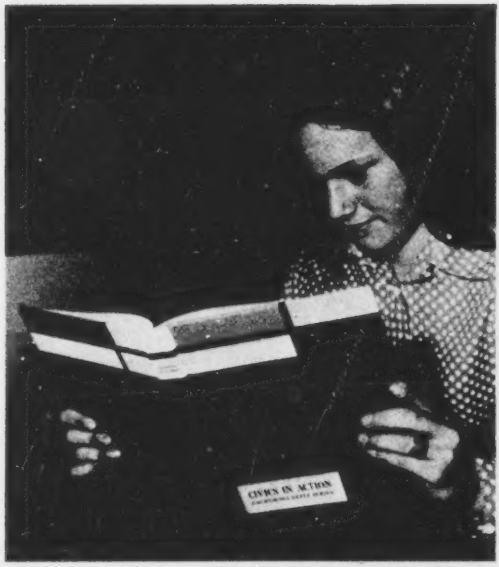
In science, concrete associations derived from observation aid long-term retention of vocabulary.

should answer. The teacher should help readers to practice this kind of disciplined direction as he reads in text selected to be typical of the reading the student will be asked to pursue independently. The aim is to make readers in science so conscious of the necessity for establishing sharply defined purposes that they will never begin to read until they know exactly what they wish to understand.

Reading in social studies. In social studies readers must learn to know geographical terms (e.g., *plateau, fault, delta*); historical terms (e.g., *chronology, period, trend*); sociological terms (e.g., *community, culture, status*); political science terms (e.g., *democracy, republic, dictatorship*); and economics terms (e.g., *inflation, depression, cycle*). Some of these terms are quite concrete; others, highly abstract. Some are common words now invested with a special meaning. All serve as symbols standing for critical ideas.

Any of these key words can be enigmas for readers, who need a rich background of association in direct experience, observation, picture, graph, maps, or some other resource that makes explicit the essential components of the term. Clearly, this reading task belongs within the area of instruction in social studies.

Almost as important as the concept-bearing words are the structure-signaling words of a field. Structure-signaling words are



In social studies the student must learn a great number of terms used in different disciplines.

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often ordinary words used with a new exactitude. These words direct the flow of thought among the concepts and within the organizing framework of the subject being studied. They show explicitly what relationships among ideas hold in the sentence being read. Examples of structure-signaling words are categorized as follows:

1. *Time.* If time is being stressed, structure-signaling words should cause a reader to look for anchor points in chronology for time relationships among people, places, and events. Words illustrative of time signals are *before, after, during, soon, until,* and *throughout.* All these words ought to send the reader's mind searching for stable elements on which to anchor time.
2. *Place.* Here words like *across, far, where, below, beyond,* and *beneath* should alert the reader to look for the places being established in relation to one another.
3. *Order.* If simple order is significant, words and groups of words like *first, second, in this order, as follows, last,* and *middle* may require the reader to establish a scene of sequence.
4. *Ranking.* Very much like order, ranking is indicated by such word groups as *the most important, the best, the more, the less,* and *the stronger.*
5. *Logic.* When logic is called into play, the words *since, because, for these reasons, accordingly,* and *therefore* are applicable.

6. *Illustration.* The word groups *for instance, for example,* and *to be specific* can be used for the purpose of illustration.

As readers meet any of these structure-signaling words, they need to be taught to look up for a moment and glance around at the terrain of ideas. Unless readers retain a sense of structure among the ideas of a field, they soon get lost among the details, never rising high enough to place the essential concepts in a unifying relationship.

As readers move to the larger tasks of reading in the social studies, they need to be helped to understand how the content of each segment is structured. Some of the reading is straight history; some of it is geography. Sometimes the reader is expected to read for information on political science, on economics, on sociology, on anthropology, or, occasionally, on psychology. These fields of learning do not organize or apply ideas in identical ways. History may be organized around movements, periods, trends, topics, problems, or issues. Geography may treat regions, physical features, and climate. The other elements of social studies have other ways of handling ideas. The task of the teacher is to make these differences clear so that readers know when to shift their frame of reference. In short, teaching in the social studies should demonstrate a way of reading as much as it should leave a residuum of ideas.

Evaluation in the Reading Program

Assessment and diagnosis are part of the total evaluation program. They are conducted before, during, and after instruction. Identification of the specific purpose for evaluation is essential in making the decision about when to evaluate. If the purpose is to diagnose a student's strengths or weaknesses in reading, for example, testing must precede the prescriptive instruction; and the results must be available immediately to the teacher planning the student's program. On the other hand, if the purpose is to assess the effect of an instructional program, testing traditionally has occurred after instruction. In the planning of program evaluation, a crucial question is whether measurement is to be used solely to assess the degree of success or failure of the program after it has been conducted or whether measurement is to be used to make mid-course corrections to improve the program while it is still in operation. If the purpose is to provide information about what is happening while it is happening so that changes can be made in the program to improve its effectiveness, process evaluation techniques should be used.

Process Evaluation

Process evaluation can be used to determine whether the specified conditions made while the program was being planned are being met

and whether the program objectives are being achieved. For example, a reading program may call for particular types of audiovisual equipment and materials; a certain number and kind of books or textbooks; a pupil-teacher ratio not to exceed a specified figure, as well as the employment of teacher aides and the use of volunteers; and a schedule that allows for intensive inservice training of the staff involved in the program. The success of the program can depend on each of these conditions; and if any condition is not being met, action must be taken to overcome existing problems and to meet the specified conditions. Otherwise, the program must be redesigned. On the other hand, if all is going well with the implementation of the program design, assessment is needed to determine the degree to which the program objectives are being achieved. This evaluation may reveal that although progress is favorable in meeting some of the objectives, student growth toward other objectives is lagging. Again, redesign of the program while it is in operation to overcome problems, to provide additional materials when needed, to change or add activities, or to redirect inservice experiences can have a significant effect on the success of the program. Program objectives, of course, need not be limited to areas of student achievement. The inservice education component, for example, can have its own set of objectives, and process evaluation techniques can be used to measure its success.

Because continual assessment is essential in all reading programs, process evaluation should be a part of the original program design. By including a variety of informal opportunities to observe the reading progress of students, teachers are able to make the mid-course corrections necessary to effective instruction.

Evaluation of Student Progress

Evaluation techniques must be identified and used to measure the outcomes of instruction. Each school district should develop a plan to measure the degree to which its program objectives in reading are being met, and each teacher should develop a plan to measure the achievement of classroom reading objectives by each student. This evaluation should include all significant areas of reading instruction, such as attitude toward reading, comprehension of both literary and expository materials, vocabulary development, and word-attack skills.

The underlying purpose of evaluation must be to serve the student. Evaluation of reading progress must focus on reading as it occurs in a natural reading-language context. The teacher, motivated by a professional interest and a dedicated commitment to help the student learn, and the parents, motivated by natural interest and

concern in their child's development, are the most important audiences of evaluation. These three—student, teacher, and parent—are connected by a bond quite different from the relationship of the student with the more remote decision makers who evaluate his progress. Thus, the principal or department chairman may not even know the student as an individual. Central office administrators—accountable to the district board of education, local taxpayers, schools of higher education, and state and federal education agencies—are even further removed from the student. The school district's governing board and the local press are concerned about the relative performance of schools within the district and of the district in relation to other districts. At the state level the State Department of Education, the State Board of Education, and the Legislature are concerned with the progress of millions of anonymous students to determine the effectiveness of expenditures for education. Federal education agencies and Congress are concerned with similar questions at the national level. (Figure 1 on page 70 presents a graphic display of the audiences of accountability and their purposes for evaluating.)

Unlike the bonds connecting the child, the teacher, and the parent, the relationship between the remote audiences of evaluation previously described and the student is fragmented, momentary, and impersonal. There are good reasons, of course, for these other audiences to be interested in evaluation results. These agencies naturally want to know how effectively funds are being spent. The danger, however, is that the proliferation of audiences asking about the state of reading may weaken the bond of learning between the student and the teacher. Evaluation for different purposes requires many kinds of measurement. An inordinate amount of testing, together with the tensions it engenders, robs the student of instructional time and creates a classroom atmosphere detrimental to maximum learning.

In the selection of an instrument for the evaluation of reading, special consideration must be given to the language performance of students who speak variant dialects. The language of the student may vary from the language of the test in the vocabulary used as well as in the grammatical and sound systems used. Especially in test situations where sentence context is not sufficient to clarify the intended meaning, these variations result in scores that do not represent the student's true reading competence. Achievement tests in reading that present words and phrases in isolation should be viewed with caution. The reader is deprived of familiar grammatical clues and normal language context in his performance on the test items.

Both the language and the experiences of the student must be considered in the selection of a testing instrument. The experience

that a reader brings to the material to be read determines in part the possibility of success in the reading act. If the test includes experiences common to one group but uncommon to another, the results will be invalid for the latter group.

Thus, both the objectives of instruction and the nature of the student population should be considered before an evaluation instrument is selected. Achievement performance level may be attributed to a variety of factors, including the following:

- Failure to understand the task presented by the test items
- Unfamiliarity with labels and concepts at variance with the student's past experiences
- Difficulty in processing oral directions presented in a language variety different from that of the student
- Little understanding of such skills in taking tests as elimination of obvious detractor items

Unless an evaluation instrument measures accurately what the student is capable of performing, it does not provide a valid assessment of reading achievement; and unless the test measures the agreed-on instructional objectives, it will not provide a valid assessment of the reading program.

Although informal assessment and diagnostic procedures are essential in the planning of reading instructional programs, more formal types of measurement are required at times for product evaluation. Norm-referenced reading tests are used when the purpose of evaluation is to compare the achievement of students in one program, class, school, district, or state with another group of students. The results of such achievement tests are usually reported in percentiles or grade-level equivalent scores. Criterion-referenced measures have entered the educational scene more recently. These measures are used to assess whether or not students can perform certain specified reading tasks. Both types of measures have a contribution to make in reading evaluation, but both also have limitations in their use and interpretation.

Norm-referenced Achievement Tests. Norm-referenced achievement tests measure performance on a few selected reading tasks. Because time does not allow for complete assessment of all the specific tasks a reader is capable of performing or of all the components on a limited number of tasks, an inference must be made to determine the reading achievement level. The validity of that inference depends on the relationship between the few reading tasks selected for testing and the instructional objectives of the reading program. For example, if the test does not measure the reading skills that already have been introduced in the program but does measure skills that will be

introduced later, the test results will not indicate the effectiveness of instruction. On the other hand, if the few specific skills selected for measurement on the test as representative of a whole complex set of skills are the only reading skills included in the instructional program, the test results will be an invalid measure of the overall reading achievement of students. Unfortunately, because of pressure for high achievement scores, standardized tests are subject to this type of misuse.

Although reliability measures for group achievement tests, when not misused by special preparation, give assurance of the comparability of results if administered in the same manner and at the same time to a group equivalent to the norm group, the test score of an individual student is subject to a significant error of measurement. With high or low achievers, for example, one or two items guessed wrong or right can often change the grade level equivalent score significantly. Group tests often can measure accurately the achievement of groups; but the achievement of a particular individual is not necessarily measured accurately, especially when an attempt is made to measure individual growth over a time span of a year or less. Yet the results of group achievement tests are frequently used in schools for the assessment of education placement of individuals.

Criterion-referenced Measures. A norm-referenced achievement test compares a student's reading performance to that of students in another group. A criterion-referenced measure indicates whether or not a student can perform a defined task; for example, whether a student reading material of specified length and complexity is able or unable to identify the topic sentence in at least four out of five paragraphs. No inference can be made directly from this measurement as to whether the student's performance is better or worse than could be expected. Nor does the measurement indicate how the achievement was reached or why the student failed to meet the criterion. It simply describes performance on a specific task.

Criterion-referenced measures have many practical classroom uses in the reading program. They are designed to do the following:

- To be directly interpretable into instructional prescriptions
- To be useful in the moment-to-moment decisions about instruction
- To yield information specific to the objectives of a local program
- To describe reading achievement in a large variety of specific dimensions

A common way to develop criterion-referenced measures is to specify objectives so that they suggest a large number of appropriate

items. If an instructional objective is to recognize the sounds of initial consonants, this objective implies a set of test items, a number of which can be selected. The selection, of course, needs to be independent of the instruction given.

This procedure may be implemented by the teacher, who makes a list of instructional objectives and associates with each a selection of test items. Although the teacher's judgment is a key factor here, published lists of objectives and even standardized tests may be useful. It is important that teachers distinguish between objectives as instructional tools and the measurements used to assess the objectives. When the performance to be observed is specified in fine detail, tasks easy to measure or observe tend to become the sole objectives of instruction. Teacher-prepared objectives may be a very important tool to help the teacher plan instruction even if they do not easily lead to measurement. Ease of measurement should not determine educational priorities.

Criterion-referenced measures do not replace norm-referenced tests. Both are important tools for teachers and serve different purposes. Criterion-referenced measures are most useful in making short-range instructional decisions; norm-referenced tests are most useful in comparing a student or class with others in a norm population. Teacher-made criterion-referenced measures can be useful to teachers in making decisons about how well their own instructional objectives are being met by their students.

The classroom teacher is the key to the success of the reading program.

The Development of Staff

For reading instruction to be successful, all those involved in the reading program—teachers, librarians, consultants, school administrators, students and their parents, paraprofessionals, and volunteers—must work harmoniously as a team, each fulfilling a unique role. The relationships are professional and should be based on mutual respect, confidence, and appreciation. The major aim must always be to provide the best possible instructional program in reading for each student in the school community.

The Role of the Classroom Teacher

The classroom teacher is the key to the success of the reading instructional program. Teaching is always a demanding experience, and the teaching of reading is no exception. Although teachers cannot be expected to be paragons of all virtues and competencies, they must be friendly and sympathetic individuals continually growing in their understanding of their students and the reading process as well as in their ability to plan and conduct an effective instructional program in reading. As a guide to achieving this growth, teachers should consider such questions as the following:

- How well do I listen to my students and learn about their backgrounds?
- To what extent can I recognize the special learning strengths and weaknesses of students from backgrounds different from my own?
- In what ways can I improve my understanding of language and its relationship to reading?
- How well do I understand the components of the reading process?
- How can I plan for the reading growth of my students from a longitudinal viewpoint covering many years?
- How can I improve my knowledge of approaches to reading instruction, of materials, and of plans for classroom organization?

- In what ways can I improve my ability to assess reading abilities, to diagnose specific strengths and weaknesses, and, as a result, to prescribe appropriate reading experiences?
- In what ways can I better recognize and use the various learning modalities of my students?
- To what extent is the reading instructional program I plan based on the unique characteristics of my students?
- How well do I know myself and my best teaching gifts?
- To what extent do my students recognize the importance of reading and the rewards it offers?
- To what extent are my students able to apply their ability to read in each of the content areas?
- How can I help my students to respond more fully to literature?
- In what ways do I exhibit my own love of reading and enthusiasm for learning?
- To what extent do I secure the support of others—principal, department chairman, librarian, consultants, paraprofessionals, volunteers, students—to assist me in the instructional program in reading?
- How well do I communicate with the parents of my students and engage them in helping their children grow in love of reading and in reading abilities?

The Role of the Reading Specialist

The reading specialist is a teacher who has specialized in the field of reading and possesses certification as a Specialist Teacher in Reading. This expertise places the teacher in a unique role in the total reading program of the school. In supporting the reading program, the reading specialist assumes the following responsibilities:

- Works with the principal and the school staff in coordinating and facilitating efforts to improve the total reading program, with emphasis on preventing reading problems at the earliest levels
- Functions as a resource person in reading for the entire staff
- Disseminates information from current research, literature, and conferences in the field of reading
- Administers and interprets reading tests given to students
- Diagnoses student needs and prescribes appropriate learning activities
- Evaluates, selects, and prepares materials to be used in reading instruction
- Develops systems of recordkeeping to facilitate short-term and long-term evaluations of pupil progress

- Provides inservice education in reading for classroom teachers
- Conducts demonstration lessons in methodology and techniques of instruction
- Assists classroom teachers in lesson planning and classroom organization
- Assists classroom teachers in fostering a healthy self-concept in each child and a positive attitude toward reading
- Trains and supervises paraprofessionals, tutors, and volunteer aides who assist students in reading
- Supplements regular classroom instruction in reading for selected pupils
- Refers children who need specialized remedial help to the appropriate professional personnel
- Informs parents of the total reading program and of the specific and general assistance that parents can provide for their children in reading

The School Librarian and the Reading Program

The school library reflects the philosophy of the school and supports and enriches all parts of its educational program. The librarian is an important asset to reading instruction. The resources and services of a school library, which may now be called the instructional materials center, instructional resource center, learning resource center, or library media center, are a fundamental part of the reading program. The school library's program, collection of materials, and environment provide learning opportunities for large and small groups as well as for individual students. The focus is on facilitating and improving the learning process. Emphasis is placed on individualization of instruction, on ideas and concepts rather than on isolated facts, and on inquiry rather than on rote memorization. The school librarian supports, implements, and extends classroom instruction as follows:

- Serves as a resource consultant to students and teachers
- Evaluates and selects materials—both printed and nonprinted—that will satisfy the curricular and recreational needs of students and teachers
- Makes materials readily accessible to students and teachers
- Assists students and teachers to produce materials
- Works with teachers in curriculum planning and in designing instructional experiences
- Assumes responsibility for providing instruction to groups or individuals in the use of the library and its resources in correlation with curricular needs

- Assists students to develop competence in listening, viewing, and reading skills
- Assists students to develop good study habits in order to acquire independence in learning and gain skills in critical thinking and inquiry
- Guides students in the development of desirable reading, viewing, and listening patterns, attitudes, and appreciations
- Provides teachers with information regarding the progress, problems, and achievements of students while in the library
- Serves on teaching teams
- Makes available to the school staff information about developments in all curricular areas, inservice workshops and courses, and professional meetings

The Roles of the Paraprofessional, Volunteer, and Tutor

The success of students in the reading program may well depend on the relationships they are able to establish with other persons having significant impact on their progress in learning. Those others may be the teacher, a paraprofessional, a parent or community volunteer, a teacher-trainee, or another student of the same age or older serving as a tutor.

Paraprofessionals (paid teacher aides) work in the schools on a regularly scheduled basis. The addition of the paraprofessional to the classroom can facilitate student learning by providing increased opportunities for interaction with adults. Often, paraprofessionals have special skills, talents, and abilities that supplement those of the teacher, making the aide an extremely important addition to the classroom. The aide's responsibilities range from routine duties that are clerical, housekeeping, and repetitive in nature to duties involving direct contact with students, individually or collectively, in a variety of reading-related activities under the guidance of the teacher.

The paraprofessional who has the particularly valuable ability to use two languages can make a remarkable difference in the learning possibilities of students who speak a language other than English. When paraprofessionals are selected from the immediate community, they can help bridge a gap that may exist between students and parents on the one hand and the classroom teacher on the other. The paraprofessional can act as a liaison person with the community, helping others understand better the purpose, problems, and approaches of the school and assisting the teacher with home visitations, parent meetings, and parent-teacher conferences.

Since the volunteer aides are unpaid, they can serve on a less regular schedule; but the nature of their services can be similar to

that of paraprofessionals. Paraprofessionals and volunteers assisting in the reading program can do the following:

- Provide students with real and vicarious experiences for language and concept development.
- Encourage students to converse, relate and dictate stories, and seek and find answers to their own questions.
- Enhance the self-concept of students by accepting their unique contributions, emphasizing their strengths, and helping them to overcome their weaknesses by working with them on their problems.
- Record dictated stories for individuals and small groups.
- Help students to bind together their own stories and poems.
- Listen to students read aloud.
- Help develop in students a zest and love for books of all kinds.
- Read aloud to students.
- Tutor individuals or small groups in reading.
- Perform clerical chores such as duplicating materials.
- Provide community resources that stimulate interest in reading.

Tutors can assist individual students in reading. Like paraprofessionals and volunteers, tutors can be adults or students. Student tutors can work with other students their own age or with younger students. Although student tutors are usually unpaid, the worth of the tutoring program does not consist of the free instructional time provided but the educational help provided to the tutor as well as to the student being assisted. Teaching others is most certainly an effective way of learning. This fact has been demonstrated to be true in instructional programs in reading. The tutoring of one student by another student is justified only when both gain in reading achievement.

All three—paraprofessionals, volunteers, and tutors—need training to be effective in advancing the reading achievement level of the students they serve. Areas explored in training sessions may include (1) interpersonal relationships among students, teachers, and aides; (2) techniques of story reading and storytelling; (3) manuscript and cursive writing and chart making; (4) techniques of giving positive reinforcement, stating learning objectives and directions, and knowing when repetition is necessary and when a task is completed; and (5) specific instructional techniques in reading designed by the teacher for an individual or group of students.

The School Administrator and the Reading Consultant

The school district superintendent and members of the central office staff have a direct responsibility (1) to provide leadership to

the reading program; and (2) to help the classroom teacher to achieve mutually agreed-on goals by providing the environmental resources and professional support basic to successful instruction. In most cases the teacher will work on a day-to-day basis with the school principal or department chairman. If the reading instructional program is to be improved, the creative approaches of teachers must be rewarded. The site administrator can facilitate program improvement in many ways, including the following:

- Help establish a supportive climate in which change can occur and in which students can explore and grow at their own rate and in their own style.
- Provide a climate for good working relationships among teachers and all those who work with students so that the program can function effectively and harmoniously.
- Develop with teachers plans for flexible scheduling of the school day and differentiated staffing to provide various schoolwide and classroom organizational patterns and opportunities for teachers to attend inservice activities.
- Be available to the school staff to serve as a sounding board for the creative ideas of teachers, thus providing constructive feedback so that the school can organize for various kinds of action leading to innovation.
- Provide reinforcement to teachers for the positive elements of ongoing programs and activities and help teachers plan for redirection of elements of their programs that have proved less effective.
- Establish lines of communication so that teachers attending conferences and similar inservice activities can help teachers who do not have the opportunity to attend.
- Provide summaries of reports resulting from the principal's experiences at conferences, of articles concerning current reading research, and of descriptions of innovative programs so that teachers can profit from many sources of information.
- Identify, in cooperation with teachers, school and classroom objectives for the instructional program in reading.
- Be a resource person to the school staff in the area of reading approaches, techniques, organizational patterns, and selection of materials.
- Assist in the development of an ongoing program of evaluation in all areas of reading.
- Assist in the establishment of a positive relationship in contacts with parents.

The Role of the Parent in the Reading Program

Often, the student's reading progress can be improved through parental support. Successful parent-teacher-student relationships can best be fostered if the parents and the teacher work together to establish avenues of communication based on trust, mutual respect, and understanding. Both the student and the teacher benefit when this kind of communication exists. The teacher can help parents to assist their children in becoming better readers by encouraging the parents to do the following:

- Listen receptively to the ideas and concerns of their children.
- Attempt to understand their children's personal problems.
- Participate in the recreational activities of their children.
- Show positive reactions to their children's program in reading.
- Stimulate and capitalize on their children's curiosity.
- Provide a rich variety of experiences for their children.
- Spend time reading aloud a variety of materials to their children.
- Encourage their children to read books, magazines, signs, labels, or other printed matter of interest to the children.
- Share additional information about their children's style of learning and particular interests and talents.
- Become familiar with their children's reading program so that appropriate types of follow-through activities can be provided at home, such as reading newspapers, discovering libraries, and reading recipes.
- Serve as a liaison person assisting in providing community resources.
- Serve as a paraprofessional.
- Volunteer to assist the teacher in the classroom through the use of special talents, hobbies, or abilities, such as being able to use two languages.

Preservice Preparation of Teachers

Educational experiences in reading require careful planning. These experiences should begin early; future teachers should have, in their freshman and sophomore years in college, direct contact with children. Such opportunities may include observations of effective innovative classroom practices; assistance in preparation of instructional materials; tutorial experience with children of various ethnic groups and achievement levels; and experiences in reading and telling stories to small groups of students. In addition, college students preparing to teach should take preprofessional courses that provide background knowledge in such basic areas as language and cognitive

development in children; linguistics; sociolinguistics; and literature written for children and adolescents.

Professional preparation for teachers should include college coursework in the following areas:

1. *Language learning and related psychological factors.* This area should include a study of the implications for reading instruction from research related to the following:
   a. Stages of concept development
   b. Concept formation and attainment
   c. Learning transfer
   d. Development of language proficiency as affected by (1) language models; (2) parent-child interactions; (3) sexual differences; (4) intelligence differences; (5) auditory and visual discrimination abilities; and (6) socioeconomic levels
   e. Interrelationships of speaking, listening, and writing to reading
2. *Linguistic implications for reading instruction.* Teachers of reading need to understand how the English language works. Specific linguistic areas relevant to the teaching of reading include the following:
   a. Relationships between oral and written language
   b. Letter patterns that provide regularity in English spelling
   c. Relationship of pitch, stress, and juncture to meaning
   d. Syntactical elements that produce meaning changes
   e. Dialectal differences and their impact on reading achievement
   f. History of spelling change and vocabulary growth
3. *Literature and the reading program.* To help each student to select the right book requires a knowledge and understanding of both young people and books. The program should explore the following:
   a. Assessment of students' interests, reading achievement, maturity, and concept levels
   b. Knowledge of a wide scope of literature ranging from fables and myths to fiction and biography
   c. Value of oral language experiences such as storytelling, story reading, and classroom drama
   d. Contribution of literature in developing increased pride in one's heritage and an understanding of other cultures and groups
4. *Methodology of reading instruction.* The teacher of reading should be able to call on a variety of procedures for the

development of word identification and comprehension abilities. Preparation should also include such techniques for meeting individual needs of students as the following:

a. Informal assessments
b. Diagnostic testing, including miscue inventories
c. Selection or preparation of prescriptive materials
d. Classroom organization strategies

Beginning teachers of reading should also be aware of new approaches and recently published instructional materials in reading and be able to evaluate the contribution of these to the students in their classrooms.

Continuing Education of Teachers and School Administrators

Effective instruction depends on the classroom teacher. Finding the magic textbook is not nearly as important as preparing the master teacher. The continuing education of teachers and principals through inservice experience is vital to successful reading instruction. The state, counties, school districts, and other educational agencies involved in inservice training must provide funds for this purpose.

Beginning with early experiences in college courses and in classroom field experiences, teachers of reading continue their professional development throughout their career. Whether through preservice training or through inservice experiences, professionals involved in the instructional program in reading should work to develop in depth their knowledge, skills, and attitudes in the following areas:

1. Development of goals and objectives by each school district according to assessment of student needs
2. Reading process—definitions and components
   a. Understanding of the reading process
   b. Learning theory as it applies to reading and language development
   c. Skills of reading
   d. Levels of thinking and their relationship to reading
   e. Affective and cognitive dimensions of reading
3. Methodology of reading
   a. Approaches, methods and techniques, and organizational patterns
   b. Linguistic competencies—how they are learned and taught
   c. Strategies of questioning and of listening to the questions students are asking

   d. Innovative programs and practices in reading, including outstanding Miller-Unruh, ESEA, and Right to Read model programs
   e. Utilization of the environment and community resources
4. Instructional materials–hardware and software
   a. Selection
   b. Use
   c. Evaluation
5. Literature in the reading program
   a. Role of literature
   b. Background in a wide variety and range of literature representing the various genres and including that which best portrays minorities within the nation and best represents authors from minority groups
   c. Techniques for increasing student involvement in, response to, and appreciation of, literature
6. Reading in other subject areas
   a. Vocabulary development–concept-bearing and structure-signaling words
   b. Study skills
   c. Application of comprehension skills to specific areas of study
7. Language and its relationship to reading
   a. Structure of English: phonology, morphology, and syntax
   b. Interference points between English and any other languages represented in the pupil population
   c. Understandings concerning functional varieties of language
8. Interpersonal relationships
   a. Need for working with students, parents, paraprofessionals, volunteers, and community agencies
   b. Teacher to teacher, teacher to principal, teacher to reading resource teacher, and teacher to support personnel relationships
   c. Communication skills, including creative listening skills and feedback skills
   d. Language, history, culture, and value systems of people in the school community
9. Evaluation as a continuous process
   a. Assessment of the needs of pupils and staff
   b. Techniques of diagnosis and prescription
   c. Formal and informal inventories and standardized tests
   d. Teacher self-evaluation techniques
   e. Evaluation of instructional reading programs, materials, and equipment

Guidelines for a successful inservice program should include the following elements:

1. Inservice programs should be a continuing, ongoing activity involving all certificated personnel and, more broadly, all who work with children.
2. Each district and each school should first assess the needs of students, programs, and staff to establish priorities and goals for the inservice education program.
3. The assessment, assignment of priorities, and the subsequent planning, implementation, and evaluation should involve teachers, administrators, support personnel, and others who can help to make inservice a cooperative and effective endeavor.
4. Particular effort should be made to provide principals and teachers with opportunities to experience inservice activities jointly so that a common frame of reference is established and the commitment for and implementation of change can be more readily accomplished.
5. Inservice programs should include the development of interpersonal relationships that will enable teachers to work successfully with students and fellow professionals as well as with parents and other members of the community involved in such activities as advisory councils and parent participation programs.
6. The inservice program should provide a variety of experiences ranging from seminars on site and interclass visitations to visits to other schools to participate in conferences.
7. Peer-to-peer approaches in which selected teachers and administrators are provided in-depth training and are then made available to their peers as educational change agents should be utilized.
8. Leaders of continuing education programs should be carefully selected for their expertise in a wide variety of skills in the teaching of reading as well as for their ability to work creatively with people.
9. The individuality and uniqueness of each professional should be welcomed, and no attempt should be made to produce carbon copies of other teachers and administrators.
10. When working with students of diverse cultural and language backgrounds, teachers should be provided inservice experiences that will enable the teachers to (a) develop an awareness and understanding for the values of the culture of the students and the life-styles of the home and community;

(b) gain sufficient understanding of linguistics to learn the interference points between the language of the student and the language in the reading program; and (c) develop a vocabulary of appropriate and usable expressions in the language of the student.

11. Released time, shared responsibilities, and other resources should be provided to augment the limited time regularly available for developing professional growth.

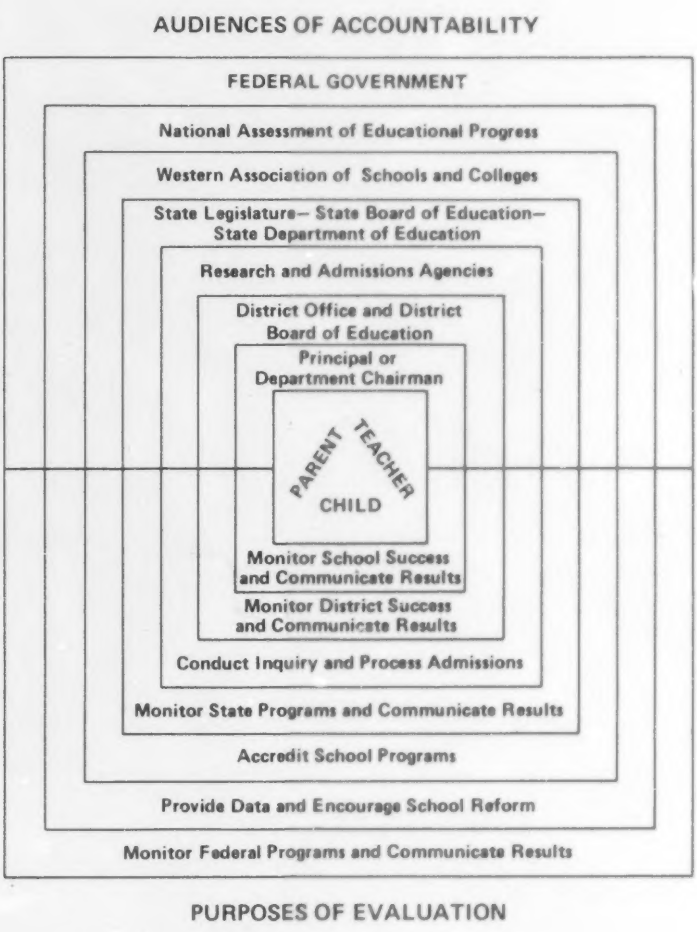

Fig. 1. Audiences of accountability and their purposes for evaluating

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